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Educational News and Editorial Comment

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TWENTY-FIFTH ANNIVERSARY OF THE NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF SECONDARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

THE National Association of Secondary-School Principals celebrated its twenty-fifth anniversary with a banquet in Haddon Hall, Atlantic City, New Jersey, Saturday evening, February 22, 1941. The after-dinner program provided the occasion for a review of twenty-five years of progress and a forward look into the future of secondary education in the United States.

Note on the association's organization and growth The history of the association was sketched by two of the "elder statesmen" in education, Jesse B. Davis, dean of the School of Education of Boston University, and Charles H. Judd, professor emeritus of education of the University of Chicago, both of whom participated in the organization of the association in 1916.

Professor Davis declared that the organization was conceived in rebellion at one of the meetings of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools because of the tendency to ignore the school principal in setting up the standards used in the accreditation of secondary schools. An organization of principals was effected at a meeting in Detroit on February 24, 1916, the purpose

being to develop and further a feeling of class consciousness and professional spirit among high-school principals. A second meeting was held in Chicago on April 16, 1916. This meeting was attended by seventy-eight principals, who effected an organization and elected officers. According to the *First Yearbook*, published in 1917, these officers were: B. Frank Brown, principal of Lake View High School, Chicago, Illinois, president; M. R. McDaniel, principal of Oak Park High School, Oak Park, Illinois, vice-president; and F. M. Hammitt, superintendent of Mason City High School, Mason City, Iowa, secretary-treasurer. However, according to Professor Davis' recollection, he himself was elected secretary and Superintendent Hammitt treasurer.

The first meeting of the new organization was held in Kansas City, Missouri, in 1917 at the time of the annual meeting of the Department of Superintendence. At that meeting Harry V. Church was elected as the permanent secretary-treasurer, a position held by Mr. Church to July 1, 1940.

Services of H. V. Church as secretary-treasurer of the association eulogized

In eulogizing the twenty-five years of service of Mr. Church to the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, Professor Judd pointed out that Mr. Church, while serving as the secretary-treasurer of the organization (which had increased its membership from fewer than three hundred in 1917 to approximately eight thousand in 1940), had also served most of the period as head of the J. Sterling Morton Township High School at Cicero, Illinois, where he introduced many new features into the secondary-school program.

The following resolution expressing the appreciation of the association for the services of Mr. Church was read and adopted.

Harry V. Church has given the major effort of his professional career to the creation and the development of two highly significant institutions. As the first principal he greeted a handful of pupils to the founding of a school which later, as the J. Sterling Morton Township High School, was to rise brilliantly, under his leadership, to national acclaim as one of the largest and best known of secondary schools.

In 1917 the National Association of Secondary-School Principals was entering doubtfully upon its second year. The first year closed with the new venture

sadly in debt, the accounts lost, the known membership pitifully small, and the future hazardous. Harry V. Church was the temporary chairman of the organizing committee in its first year. He then became the secretary-treasurer, and immediately the association was on the move, and thereafter progress marched unswervingly forward.

Presidents, officers, committee members have made their transitory sojourns, but Harry V. Church and the association became durably and effectively synonymous. Each of the twenty-five years, now in celebration, saw membership gains, financial progress, service extensions, professional growth, and an increase in national prestige.

The unflinching industry, the meticulous care, the keen discrimination, the intense loyalty—all that made the unconquerable spirit of Harry V. Church—were inextricably interwoven with the making of a great professional institution. Again, as with the principalship, but now, more particularly in national scope, the life of Harry V. Church and his devoted and inspiring family reflected the life and growth of a magnificent educational organization.

With deep and abiding appreciation the National Association of Secondary-School Principals submits this testimonial to Harry Victor Church on this, the twenty-fifth anniversary of his loyal and efficient service.

Mr. Church retires from the secretary-treasurership of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals to devote his full time to the administration of the National Honor Society of the association, which has a membership of about a half-million pupils.

The feature addresses at the anniversary banquet Dean Francis T. Spaulding, of the Graduate School of Education of Harvard University, and Federal Security Administrator Paul V. McNutt provided the forward-looking part of the program at the anniversary banquet of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals. Dean Spaulding presented a challenge to secondary-school administrators to solve the problems confronting American young people of secondary-school age, and Administrator McNutt, who still enjoys a professorial status on leave, discussed "Education in Our Time."

Both speakers agreed that the occupational adjustment of youth under twenty-one years of age presents an acute problem in rural and in urban communities. Mr. McNutt urged, for rural areas especially, the establishment of regional or state vocational schools, post-high-school technical institutes, and junior colleges as a means of extending vocational education to higher age and grade levels, as

has already been done in larger communities. He does not regard increase in the opportunities for vocational education as providing a complete solution to the problem of unemployment of youth, although he asserted that it would undoubtedly exercise an important bearing on the problems of youth by making more fruitful the educational investment of the years before twenty-one. He said:

Young people have always been anxious to cut the parental apron strings of financial dependency to try their own resources of courage, inventiveness, and capacity. They are no less anxious to do so today than yesterday. And yet the time at which youth undertakes the duties of adulthood is dependent not only upon biologic maturity but upon economics and social expectation as well. Youth in certain favored homes fully expect to remain dependent upon the financial resources of others until they have completed a college or university professional training. Other youth drop out of school as soon as their parents and the law will permit, partly because they feel the economic pressure to relieve family budgets, partly because the educational program in many instances lacks practical purpose and meaning for them.

In the light, therefore, of the changed conditions confronting youth in our time, I submit that it is imperative that educational services for youth be broadened and strengthened, both in terms of the youth to be served and in terms of the kind of technological society in which youth must live. The purposes of secondary education in America must be reassessed and the program, in many instances, redirected. Only thus can we lay the foundations for a strong and functioning democracy. Only thus can we meet youth's challenge to education in our time.

NOTES ON SECONDARY EDUCATION FROM THE ATLANTIC CITY MEETINGS

Report of National Committee on Co-ordination in Secondary Education

A report which outlines a comprehensive program toward which all secondary schools should move was considered and adopted by the National Committee on Co-ordination in Secondary Education. The report, which is the work of a special evaluating committee under the chairmanship of G. L. Maxwell, consists of four parts. Part I considers the relation of the federal government to the education of youth of secondary-school age. Part II presents a proposal for a community youth council as a means of operating the program set forth in Part I. Part III deals with the responsibility of the state in providing and

operating the program. Part IV outlines the relation of the federal government to a complete and unified program of education for youth. Since the report is to be published in full in the *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, only a brief statement will be given here.

In Part I the report points out that it is highly important that organizations of educators move at once to the formulation of constructive statements of the principles, policies, and plans which, in their judgment, should guide the further development of education of youth of high-school ages. In this connection it is urged:

1. Schools have had opportunity to re-orient themselves, in terms both of budgets and of programs, since the early years of the depression.
2. Both educators and the public have had considerable experience with the federal youth programs and should be able to judge both their values and their weaknesses.
3. The question must soon be faced as to whether the federal agencies, operated hitherto on a legal basis of "emergency" and "relief," are to be made permanent, discontinued altogether, or used as the means of transition to a federal participation in youth education on a different basis.

The report then presents an outline of an educational program commensurate with the needs and the obligations of youth in secondary schools.

A proposal for a community youth council as a means of operating this program is presented in Part II. The principal functions of this council are:

1. To act as a clearing-house by means of which all youth-serving organizations and agencies are made aware of, and alert to, all the opportunities and services which are provided for youth.
2. To determine the degree to which the services within a defined community are adequate to meet all of the needs of youth.
3. To attempt to provide additional needed services either by expanding the functions and increasing the efficiency of existing agencies or by developing new ones.
4. To define the functions of the various youth-serving organizations in order to eliminate conflicts and overlappings as well as to provide for the efficient operation of the respective services contributing to the total youth program.
5. To provide for the effective functioning of the several youth-serving organizations by means of co-operatively determining and carrying out the responsibilities for the various phases of the youth program.

Other problems considered in Part II are (1) the possible membership of the community youth council, (2) the operating staff, and (3) financial support.

Parts III and IV present in some detail the responsibilities of the state in providing and operating an effective program of secondary education and the relation of the federal government to a complete and unified program of education for youth in all the states.

New officers were elected, and instructions were given to the committee to proceed during the ensuing year with plans for implementing the program as rapidly as possible.

The terminal functions served by junior colleges Two contributions of more than usual merit were presented at the junior-college section of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals. One of these contributions dealt with the part of the terminal junior college in meeting the needs of youth. A brief summary of this paper, which was presented by Professor Harl R. Douglass, director of the College of Education, University of Colorado, follows.

The early conception of the junior college gave promise of an education which would prepare a large group of students for those occupations that required more than the secondary school could provide but less than was provided in a four-year college. Disappointment arose when the junior college attempted to mimic the lower divisions of the universities. With the depression came a scrutinizing of the effectiveness of this type of program. As a result junior-college staffs really attacked their major problem—terminal education and guidance. Junior colleges are now developing terminal courses which train for that large group of occupations which require no more than two years of college education. Since three out of every four junior-college students terminate their formal education in the junior college, this trend toward the development of numerous two-year terminal courses is quite encouraging.

Today courses and curriculums have been developed in more than two hundred occupational fields. Numerous junior colleges have developed a clear-cut and indigenous philosophy with respect to terminal education. Vocational terminal curriculums are correlated with local occupational opportunities. The local junior college has become a community college with a strong adult-education program. Intensive short-term and refresher courses for unemployed youth and adults are now provided. Co-operative distributive occupations and part-time courses are providing real training for a large group. Intensive, specific job training courses are giving way to broader general-education courses,

such as reorganized general courses in science, mathematics, and English, and courses in health, home consumer-education, leisure and intelligent citizenship.

In addition, the junior college is giving attention to individual as well as group guidance, and to the occupational placement, follow-up, and adjustment of its college-leaving students. The junior-college faculty is less interested in subject matter as such, and more interested in seeing that their work actually counts for something definite in influencing and improving human lives. Such a program will produce immediate results within the community—young men and women happily working, enjoying America in the way we idealize, and building good American homes of the type of which we like to think.

The second contribution was made by President Constance Warren, Sarah Lawrence College, Bronxville, New York, on the responsibility of a private junior college for women in the present crisis. The following is a summary of President Warren's address.

The program of Sarah Lawrence College is based on the determination to build around the interests, needs, and abilities of its students without any regard to the problem of how those students could make the transfer to four-year colleges. The college has found that, as soon as it had established a reputation for doing solid work under a scholarly faculty, the four-year colleges put up with its unconventionality and accepted its students for transfer without any appreciable difficulty. Confidence in the clarity of the objectives of the college and in the quality of its teachers, not a listing of specific courses offered, seems to be the determining factor in the acceptance of students for transfer, either to the senior division or to the graduate school. The chief concern of the junior college is not that of justifying its academic respectability by duplicating the first two years of the usual college program, but rather the more important task of re-examining these first two years of the college program in the light of what the students are interested in learning and *can* learn in the sense of really digesting and assimilating. This is the never-ending problem which, if honestly and seriously approached, may be guaranteed to keep any college from going to sleep on its feet.

The junior college all too often is but an echo of a program logically patterned in terms of subject matter. The junior college will be one of the most important factors in education when it declares its independence and tries to find out what experiences really educate on the late adolescent level. Then its faculty will become acutely aware that what is educational meat for one student is poison for another, will begin to give less weight to "covering ground" in a subject and more to the selection of material which is of real significance to the student, which really trains him as a well-adjusted, effective citizen.

We have never found a common ground of subject matter so essential for all students in their Freshman year that it should be required of all. These may be the last two years of formal education which these girls will ever have. Not

every girl, therefore, takes English, and, if she does, she is not launched into Chaucer at once. Our objective is to train her to participate more effectively and more intelligently in the important business of living. All Freshmen are not expected to take a course in daily themes. They will be reading in a writing class and writing in a reading class. For those who cannot write coherent English, special training is provided. The neighborhood in which the junior college is located may and should be as much a part of the college as the classroom. Field trips form a valuable part of the work and are integrated with the students' academic work.

The junior college can well take the lead in examining the educational value of the arts—not just learning about them but also the practice of them, not just as an aesthetic experience but for their intellectual value if well taught and for the emotional satisfactions which they carry with them. It is also our experience that science, if it is presented as a vital part of living, is well patronized on an elective basis. After much trial and error we have come to the conclusion that it should include the experience of posing a scientific problem and finding out how to solve it, some indication of the function of that science in the modern world, some indication of its relation with other sciences, and some of the basic principles upon which this science rests. We have not considered mathematics or modern languages essential college experiences for all students. Those who have found mathematics a nightmare in school may avoid it in college, but they frequently run up against the necessity for further work in that field in connection with chemistry, physics, or statistics. When that time comes, we turn them over to a teacher of mathematics, not for a year of preparatory work, but for just as much as is necessary for the specific field of study in which it is required. We discourage a modern language as a symbol of "culture"; we encourage it for those who have real linguistic interest or a practical reason for taking it. Again when the student needs it in connection with other work, she generally learns it with amazing rapidity. No subject is more universally desired by beginning students than psychology. Almost everyone wants to understand herself and others better and turns to psychology for enlightenment.

These two years are the golden opportunity to show the student the close relation between fields of subject matter which up to that time have been too often neatly packaged. Breaking down the barriers between courses of study is as rewarding as it is difficult for those of us who were trained to specialize narrowly in graduate schools. We find ourselves discarding textbooks for a wider variety of reference reading, encouraging our students to independent study, asking for fewer class periods but each sufficiently long for the kind of free discussion which develops and pushes out the formal lecture and the equally formal recitation. Education is thought of in terms of the students rather than in terms of well-organized bodies of information. Thoughtful teachers realize that, if education for democracy is to be effective, it must permeate every part of the teaching program and every part of the program of living on the campus. In a democracy each educational unit is charged with the responsibility of so

planning its education that it will enable its students to become mature, responsible citizens, preserving their individuality while developing social responsibility. The college must be a co-operative working unit, always on the alert for better ways to share responsibilities. Its program must be such as will train citizens prepared to think clearly and independently and to assume their share of responsibility for an effective co-operative life.

*Report of year's work in
study of the occupational
adjustment of graduates*

Edward Landy, director of the Occupational Adjustment Study being carried on by the Implementation Commission of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals under a grant from the General Education Board, made a report in which he submitted six findings on the basis of information obtained in 1939-40 on out-of-school youth:

1. When youth are given opportunities to assume self-direction and self-responsibility in situations which are as like job situations as they can possibly be made, the youth benefit thereby in their actual adjustments to real jobs.

2. Definite attempts at instructing youth in planning and self-appraisal (which are closely related), through such means as individual counseling, group guidance, a comprehensive testing program, an exploratory program, and an enlistment of the entire faculty in helping to guide pupils, are practices which seem helpful.

3. Not only is there considerable economic waste in haphazard occupational training, but there is considerable danger of subsequent emotional upset.

4. In addition to a more realistic occupational training within the school, it is desirable to provide a post-school counseling service; for no matter how carefully and realistically the school may attempt to provide guidance and job training, it can never expect to do a final and perfect piece of work in these areas.

5. Schools cannot be content with one-year follow-up studies upon which to base conclusions as to the amount and kind of employment of their youth. Follow-up periods of approximately five years are necessary if any sound inferences are to be drawn with respect to modifications of the school program.

6. Youth which succeeds in securing successful occupational adjustment in our democracy is more likely to be willing to fight for its maintenance than youth which is disappointed, disillusioned, and bitter.

This year the investigation is being followed up with further study in an effort to discover leads concerning promising techniques and practices which have proved to be successful in effecting occupational adjustments for young people who have left school for gainful employment. To date, 154 high schools have purchased 91,000 copies of the record materials for use in making individual follow-up studies

during the current year. The 154 participating schools are located in 39 states. The enrolments of these schools range from fewer than 100 to more than 3,500 pupils. The communities in which the participating schools are located are of widely different types, such as agricultural, industrial, and residential. The largest city to adopt the plan is Providence, Rhode Island.

One of the objectives of the Occupational Adjustment Study this year is to observe the occupational follow-up and adjustment service plan in action. In the accomplishment of this objective, forty schools are being visited. The staff members who are doing the visiting have received the utmost in co-operation from the schools visited thus far, and the school people not only have been glad to have the staff representative talk to the various members of the school faculties and observe the schools in action but also have been eager to secure suggestions on how they can follow up their pupils more effectively. Later in the year a report will appear as an issue of the *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*. This report will contain a complete discussion of the ways in which the follow-up materials are being used in the schools visited and in other schools which have submitted the data requested from time to time by the director of the study.

Value of work experience to pupils in high school Work experiences as a necessary part of the education of secondary-school pupils was advocated by George C. Mann, director of the Division of Student Work of the National Youth Administration, at a sectional meeting of senior high school principals. The following paragraphs present a brief summary of Mr. Mann's remarks.

Work experiences are necessary in bridging the gap between youth and adulthood. The schools occupy a strategic position relative to the nation's youth. As a basic institution in our society the school is in intimate contact with six and one-half million young people. Work experiences, if adopted as a part of the schools' curriculum, could thus be spread over the entire youth population. Under the N.Y.A. only a small portion of this number can be reached.

Valuable work experiences can be obtained only from *real* jobs, jobs which produce both tangible and intangible values for the individual and the community. Students must see the need and social value of their jobs if through them there is to be developed a sense of usefulness, sense of pride and responsi-

bility, and sense of belonging to the community and the nation. Jobs must be worth while and, therefore, *worth paying for*.

The wages youth receives for its labor are youth's *guaranty* that that labor is desired by society. But wages are not only an expression of society's approval of the work performed; wages are a necessary and important element in the transition of youth to adulthood.

Any nation that wishes to remain strong must be a working nation. Work is essential to everyone, but youth especially need work experiences to develop healthy minds, strong bodies, and social consciousness. A social institution is needed to organize the energies of youth in constructive social channels. The schools, as the strategic institution in our youth population, have a tremendous responsibility toward this problem.

The need for vocational guidance for school youth

Floyd W. Reeves, director of the American Youth Commission of the American Council on Education, in discussing a policy for adult education before a meeting of the National Council on Education, declared:

No society can be regarded as healthy that fails to guide its workers into the kinds of jobs they are best able to fill. The schools ought to be performing this service for oncoming workers, but for the most part they are not. No more than one youth in four now receives vocational guidance from any source. The task therefore falls to adult education and to other youth-serving agencies.

Opportunities for vocational counseling must be multiplied many times. Moreover, we must greatly expand our activities in the field of occupational research. Every community needs basic facts about local as well as national occupational patterns. Only through such measures can we substantially reduce the emotional frustration and economic waste which inevitably result from vocational maladjustment.

Adult education should also concern itself with vocational training and re-training. Such training, however, should be geared to known, not imagined, needs. It should be held to the probable demand for skilled workers and full allowance made for training by industry and the possibilities of developing apprenticeship. Vocational training must also be intimately related to programs of guidance capable of diverting into each type of training the individuals whose aptitudes and interest best qualify them for useful work in those fields.

More than three hundred thousand persons receiving vocational training

L. S. Hawkins, chief of the Division of Trade and Industrial Education of the United States Office of Education, reported to the members of the Department of Vocational Education of the National Education Association:

Vocational education since July 1, 1940, has trained or is training more than 330,000 skilled workers for national-defense industries, in contrast to 60,000 trained under the old Federal Board for Vocational Education in eighteen months during the World War.

The vocational-education program is authorized by two acts of Congress which made provision for the combined allotment of more than \$75,000,000 of federal funds to the states for the cost of pre-employment refresher courses, supplementary courses, preparatory courses, for rural and non-rural youth of less than college grade, and engineering courses of college grade. Under the "Number 1 Program" vocational education is retraining workers who have "lost" their skills during the depression years and workers employed in industry for more advanced skilled positions.

Vocational education co-operates in the two other programs for the training of skilled workers—the apprenticeship program promoted by the Federal Apprenticeship Committee of the United States Department of Labor, and the Training-within-Industry Division of the Advisory Commission to the Council of National Defense.

The training program is not intended to change the nature of vocational education, which was begun twenty-three years ago and continued under the basic Smith-Hughes and George-Deen Acts.

There is a co-operative relationship with the United States Employment Service which makes possible a systematic effort toward alignment of training on one hand and industry's and workers' needs on the other, eliminating to some degree tendencies to leave to circumstances of chance that the right workers will get the right job.

An administrative problem which confronts the Office of Education is how to make \$8,000,000 appropriated for the purchase of machine tools for the necessary expansion of vocational-education shops stretch over the requirements of the states.

Indoctrination of youth for American democracy The indoctrination of children and youth for American democracy was strongly advocated by Dean B. F. Pittenger, of the School of Education of the University of Texas, at a joint meeting of the National Society of College Teachers of Education and the American Educational Research Association:

The process recommended involves the cultivation of understandings, beliefs, and loyalties concerning those persisting principles which constitute the basic ideology of American society. Indoctrination as thus defined culminates American citizenship education, which also includes formal instruction in the social studies and daily practice in democratic living.

These basic principles are discoverable in the open agreements and hidden assumptions in contemporary discussions of the American system or way of life.

Some examples are the principles of popular sovereignty and civil liberty, individualism as opposed to institutionalism, equality of opportunity, and opposition to hereditary castes. Principles like these mark the channels within which the evolution of American customs and institutions should proceed.

Understanding of these principles, belief in them, and devoted loyalty to them on the part of our citizenry are imperative if American society shall withstand either current pressure from foreign ideologies or the trend toward ideological anarchy which is its own indigenous weakness. But if our society is to keep evolving toward more truly democratic living, American education must avoid propaganda either for or against changes in our practices or institutions. There is no room for active partisanship in American schools, except for American democracy itself.

Indoctrination of American children in the basic and abiding principles of American democracy is here represented as an inalienable professional duty of teachers in American schools. When recognized and accepted as such by these teachers, it will become as normal a function as is the teaching of reading and arithmetic. So regarded, the proposal of this paper cannot in any way invade the accepted principles of academic freedom.

*Aviation provides aims
for study of mathematics*

Recent studies of the mathematics curriculum in the secondary schools emphasize the need for modifications of the content of mathematics courses in line with the changing interests and opportunities of the student body. An example of possible sources of vitalizing materials for instruction in mathematics was noted by Professor C. N. Shuster, of the State Teachers College at Trenton, New Jersey, in an address before the National Council of Teachers of Mathematics:

Mathematics as a subject of instruction in the school curriculum, at a time when it is needed more than at any other time in the history of the world, is losing its once favored place and appears to some to be about to follow the sad course of Latin and Greek. One of the reasons for this is the lack of practicality and interest in much of our high-school mathematics. In the high school, at least, there is no good reason why mathematics cannot be practical and interesting and yet still retain all the cultural and other more or less vague virtues the higher mathematicians desire.

Because of the practical importance of aviation and the present interest in it, the mathematics of aviation has much to offer the progressive teacher. The mathematics of aviation may be divided into four parts: (1) The mathematics of airplane design. This is too difficult for the high school. (2) The mathematics of airplane construction and maintenance. This offers many interesting problems for high-school classes. (3) The economics of aviation. The problems of pay load, cost per mile, depreciation, overhead, and the like provide many inter-

esting problems. (4) The problems of navigation. This phase of aviation provides many problems that may be used in high school.

INFORMATION EXCHANGE ON EDUCATION AND THE NATIONAL DEFENSE

A NEW service has recently been established by the United States Office of Education to assist administrative officers and teachers who desire to modify existing school programs in the interest of national defense. Three specialists have been appointed to give full time to the collection and the distribution of materials bearing on defense in elementary, secondary, and higher education. Materials are collected from the areas indicated and are edited, classified, and prepared for distribution. To date, folios have been prepared on (1) "The Role of the School in National Defense," (2) "Understanding and Practicing Democracy in the Schools," (3) "The School and the Community," (4) "Health," (5) "Conservation," and (6) "Vocational Education."

Individual schools, administrators, principals, or teachers can contribute to the exchange of information by reporting to O. I. Fredrick, United States Office of Education, Washington, D.C., (1) the kinds of assistance desired from the exchange, (2) important local contributions in connection with national defense, and (3) materials available for the use of the exchange service. The following kinds of materials are desired:

Organizational plans such as: local, regional, or institutional programs for co-operative defense activities; committee setups; study groups; activities directed to protecting vital educational developments which might be threatened in times of economic pressure.

School and community programs for co-operative study; adult-education activities and wider utilization of school plants and the like.

Curriculum content and descriptions of classroom procedures found most effective in building good citizenship, tolerance, appreciation, and understanding.

Visual aids, movies, radio programs, etc., or descriptions of their use.

The exchange is preparing selected materials, for circulation on a loan basis, in the form of originals, reproductions, digests, bibliographies, etc. A well-annotated catalogue describing the various kits, books, and folders will be distributed widely. There will be no fees.

WILLIAM C. REAVIS

WHO'S WHO FOR APRIL

Writer of the news notes and authors of articles in the current number WILLIAM C. REAVIS, professor of education at the University of Chicago. HARRY K. NEWBURN, director of the University High School and associate professor of education at the University of Iowa. ROBERT C. WOELLNER, associate professor of education and executive secretary of the Board of Vocational Guidance and Placement at the University of Chicago. LELAND P. BRADFORD, instructor in education at the University of Illinois. JOHN A. ANDERSON, dean of records at Pasadena Junior College, Pasadena, California. NELLIE L. MERRICK, teacher in the Laboratory Schools at the University of Chicago. PAUL W. TERRY, professor of educational psychology at the University of Alabama.

The writers of reviews in the current number DENTON L. GEYER, director of vocational training and chairman of the Department of Education at Chicago Teachers College. H. H. GILES, curriculum associate, Commission on the Relation of School and College of the Progressive Education Association, Ohio State University. CHARLES W. SANFORD, principal of the University High School at the University of Illinois. WILLIAM M. CRUICKSHANK, research fellow in special education at the University of Michigan. NELSON B. HENRY, associate professor of education at the University of Chicago. WALTER A. EGGERT, assistant professor of education at DePaul University.

EDUCATION FOR LIFE IN A DEMOCRACY

HARRY K. NEWBURN

University of Iowa

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RESPONSIBILITY OF EDUCATION IN TIME OF CRISIS

ALL sorts of suggestions are being made to indicate the mechanisms through which the nation may best meet the present emergency. It is only natural that the schools be included among the agencies expected to assist materially in the program of internal defense. Elementary schools, secondary schools, and institutions of collegiate level are receiving all sorts of demands for the provision of special training, for the inculcation of certain points of view, and for assistance in educating the general public.

It is easy in such a setting to assume not only that the schools should co-operate in the task of preparing for the immediate emergency but also that during such a period this preparation is the primary task, if not the only task, of educational institutions.

Thus the first question, a very practical one, is: What is the responsibility of education in a democracy at this time of crisis? Is it not the task of the educator to cast aside all other obligations for the moment in order that all efforts of the school may be directed to defense, which, we admit, is our most critical current problem? Is there anything more important to the schools than that they be able to give complete attention to a condition referred to as little less than a national emergency? To be more specific, should not all teachers and administrators at this time be chiefly concerned with orienting the entire activities of the schools around the problem of internal defense in order that nothing may prevent this program from being completed at the earliest possible moment?

While it is clearly the responsibility of every individual and of every organization in this nation, including the school, to co-operate to the fullest extent with the activities of internal defense, the

writer's judgment is that to assume such an obligation as the only or even the primary purpose of education at this time or at any time would be not only a grave mistake but actually a national calamity of great magnitude.

To propose that the schools can ignore the present situation would be useless; to suggest that education can be indifferent to a problem so close to the public welfare would be foolish; but to assume for a moment that education can, at any time, give up its fundamental and continuous responsibility to society even in the face of such a critical situation would be indeed to display a woeful lack of understanding.

The fundamental obligation of education in any society is to transmit to coming generations that which the society thinks is good. Education is the life-blood of society. Thus the purpose of education in any nation can be stated only in terms of the status and direction of the culture which the educational program serves. This idea is well expressed by the Educational Policies Commission:

A society which exalts force and violence will have one set of educational aims. A society which values reason, tranquillity, and the paths of peace will have another and very different set. Again, a society which worships its ancestors and blindly reverences the past will have and does have different educational purposes from a society which recognizes the necessity for adjustment and change. The educational objectives in each case rest on certain ideas of good and bad, but these ideas are different in each case and lead to aims for the schools which differ one from another as the day from the night.¹

Emphasis should be placed on the truth that, so far as society is concerned, education in any nation must be staged in terms of ultimate and far-reaching goals if that society is to be maintained. The task of education is far greater than the problem of the moment. Any society will grow and prosper, remain strong and virile only to the degree that its educational program takes this long-term view, refusing to be deviated from its fundamental obligation no matter how great the stress and strain of the present. While at times the school must necessarily devote attention to crises of the moment, it must not do so at the expense of its paramount obligation to so-

¹ Educational Policies Commission, *The Purposes of Education in American Democracy*, p. 2. Washington: Educational Policies Commission of the National Education Association and the American Association of School Administrators, 1938.

ciety. To neglect its first responsibility would be to the life of society as the lack of bodily nourishment is to life in the individual; for education, especially in a democracy, is society's method of providing itself with the sustenance essential to its very survival.

That we do not look upon education sufficiently in this light is being suggested more and more frequently. Lord Stamp, in suggesting recently that, if the educational systems of democracies are to secure results at all comparable with those achieved by the totalitarian states of Europe, these results must come from sacrifice, and in arguing that democracy involves more dynamic moral force than the passion for competitive success and personal distinction, has this to say:

One of the things that impressed me most on the day devoted to the Hitler Youth at the Nuremberg Festival, was the beautiful and moving chorus in which hundreds of thousands of youths responded to high sentiment in a kind of liturgy. It is their form of religion, and democracy now has little to match it, for democracy tends to get less and less of this appealing formative influence in its educational system.¹

The liturgy to which Stamp refers is the Solemn Oath taken by German youth at the close of their period of service in the labor camps of the nation. The emotional nature of this ceremony is evident in the oath which forms the core of the total service:

In the presence of the Führer let us swear this: We shall never forget how we bruised our hands and seared our hearts, as we toiled fully half a year on German soil! Thus shall our whole life be a great Labor Service for Germany. This we swear.²

Our social policy is inexorably bound to a continued striving toward the democratic ideal. Thus the schools will justify their being only insofar as they develop citizens who have a real understanding of the meaning of the democratic ideal, who believe in this ideal as the highest form of social living known to man, and who are willing to face real sacrifice in their efforts to realize this goal. Lord Stamp has aptly said that democracy is "the development of the universal

¹ Lord Josiah Stamp, "Essential Characteristics of Democracy," *Education for Democracy*, p. 56. Proceedings of the Congress on Education for Democracy Held at Teachers College, Columbia University, August 15, 16, 17, 1939. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1939.

² *Ibid.*, p. 57.

sense of responsibility and self-sacrifice."¹ The obligation of the school is to bring the individual to a full appreciation of this heritage, to equip him with the tools necessary to its further realization, and to give him the desire for a more complete achievement of this goal and the willingness to face the self-sacrifice that such achievement demands.

This obligation facing education in a democracy is stated concisely by Lord Eustace Percy:

As democrats, we believe in government by the people. There must therefore be a people united enough to govern. But, as educators, it is not our business to school people into unity of sentiment. That way lie communism, fascism, Hitlerism. *Our business is, not to make nations, but to make men* [italics not in original].²

As educators, we must believe in, and rest our case on, the improvable of the individual. We must realize that wars are man made, as are churches, schools, and, in fact, all institutions good and bad. We must recognize that a society can be molded only through the development of individuals ready and able to fight, if need be, for that society. We must be convinced of the fact that only by improving man can we improve society. If we ever needed evidence of the tremendous power of the individual for good or bad, it is provided in the picture of present-day Germany, where a handful of wilful, cunning, and unscrupulous men are able to direct the destinies of a great people. If we ever needed proof of the effectiveness of education when unified about a single goal, it is before us in the picture of Nazi youth eager to sacrifice all for their leader and state.

Thus, long after the present critical days are forgotten, education will strive to guide and direct social evolution through constant and continuous efforts pointed basically at the improvement of the individual. This concept recognizes that the greatest danger to a democratic society is in the possibility of decay from within, through the lack of discipline among its citizens. One can readily sense the

¹ *Ibid.*, p. 59.

² Lord Eustace Percy, "The Responsibility of Democracy," *Education for Democracy*, p. 181. Proceedings of the Congress on Education for Democracy Held at Teachers College, Columbia University, August 15, 16, 17, 1939. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1939.

tremendous earnestness of the following statement from Czechoslovakia published in the *New York Times* of September 25, 1937:

Our country might conceivably be overwhelmed by superior military force, but our democracy will never be imperiled by outside attacks. Democracy is always weakened from within. Only its own feebleness or complacency destroys it. We in Europe see more clearly than you that democracy dies from lack of discipline, unwillingness to compromise, group pressure, corruption, usurpation of public power because the public is greedy or indifferent. It dies unless it draws life from every citizen. Denouncing dictators gets nowhere. The job of those who believe in the democratic process is to be positive, not negative, to build it up, expose and correct its mistakes, keep it alive.¹

This statement cries out for an educational program to offset the weaknesses recognized as constituting the greatest peril of a democratic society—the weaknesses of men, in every case. If, as they say, democracy dies “from lack of discipline,” from “unwillingness to compromise,” from “corruption,” or because “the public is greedy or indifferent,” such society can live and prosper only if it possesses men who are disciplined, who are willing to compromise, who are above corruption, and who are neither greedy nor complacent. There seems to be little doubt that a great deal of the cause for the recent collapse of France can be traced to a gradual deterioration in the moral fiber of the nation, to a lack of discipline among its citizens, as well as to military weakness. This decay from within is insidious and fatal in its effects on the character and morale of a people. No nation is free from its influence, and we should not be too complacent in our assumption that “it cannot happen here.”

The fundamental job of educators, then, is so to operate the schools that they may develop men possessed of these qualities essential to a democracy. All activities should be directed to this goal, and the success of the educational enterprise should be judged in terms of the degree to which this status is achieved.

SETTING UP OBJECTIVES

If we are agreed that education in a democracy must serve this fundamental and far-reaching objective, that the very life of our society depends on the degree to which we are able to produce a

¹ Anne O'Hare McCormick, “Mourning for Masaryk Should Comfort Democracies,” *New York Times*, LXXXVII (September 25, 1937), 16.

generation of men possessed of this faith, men willing to face self-sacrifice in their striving toward this ideal—if we are agreed on this basic thesis—what is the task of the educator?

Certainly the first major step in this process involves simply a careful consideration of the objectives of education, both general and specific, and of the most advantageous means of realizing these objectives once they have been established. The difficulty with most statements of objectives, from the point of view of the classroom teacher, or even that of the administrator, lies in their extreme generality, their lack of concreteness. We speak of "training for citizenship," of developing "vocational efficiency," or of encouraging "worthy home membership"—all phrases which encompass just about any activity that might be included in the teaching program. It is only natural, therefore, that our most common use of objectives in the past, especially in the secondary and the collegiate areas, has been to call them forth as a means of defending activities or subjects already taught about which some question has been raised. In other words, too frequently objectives have been thought of only after the subject matter has been selected, not primarily as a basis for the choice of educational experiences.

Before any definite results can be attained as far as outcomes are concerned, more than this lip service must be given to objectives. That is, in addition to statements of general goals, which of course are essential to the program, there must be developed a hierarchy of objectives, from the most general to the very specific, so that any unit of work may be justified in terms of its purposes, and these objectives in terms of the more general statements which indicate the ultimate goals of the program. Only in this way can there be assurance that the program has the direction necessary to its adequate realization. A visitor to any classroom should expect an intelligent answer to the question: "What are the objectives for the work you are doing today?" The answer should not fall back on some general statement, such as, "We are training for citizenship," or even, "We are developing appreciation for literature," but should be a specific indication of the immediate purpose, along with a definite linking of this immediate purpose to the more general goal to be served by the unit of work, as well as to the fundamental outcomes

expected of the total educational program. Unless this link can be seen, there is no evidence of the presence of planning and no way to determine the direction of the educational experiences provided for the pupils.

It is not too much to expect that each teacher be able to justify his day-to-day activities through the recognition of such a hierarchy of objectives. In fact, the only method by which basic and ultimate outcomes can be achieved is through the attainment of this status by every teacher. It should be remembered also that vitality can be given to the work of the school through that motivation coming from the knowledge on the part of the student of the goals toward which instruction is pointed. Obviously it is impossible to give students an understanding of purposes and goals until teachers themselves are certain of the objectives toward which their instruction is pointed.

While they are completely interrelated, one being the corollary of the other, two points of view can be taken in discussing the purposes of education: first, the viewpoint of the society which it desires to perpetuate and improve and, second, the standpoint of the individuals making up that society. As has been shown, the first of these purposes can be achieved only through the accomplishment of the latter because, in the end, institutions rise and fall in terms of the nature of the men who build and nurture them. For the sake of analysis, however, it is possible to discuss the two aspects of the problem independently.

PURPOSES OF EDUCATION FROM POINT OF VIEW OF SOCIETY IN GENERAL

Let us look first at the purposes of education from the viewpoint of society. Society has the right to expect that the educational program of the nation will strengthen that society through the development of citizens who understand the culture in which they live, who believe in it, and who are willing to strive for its perpetuation and improvement. In the writer's judgment these objectives can be accomplished only through a frank, direct, and powerful program of indoctrination in the schools.

We have been so fearful of "telling pupils what to think," of destroying freedom through indoctrination, of failure to present all

sides of the picture, that we have produced a generation of young people many of whom do not realize the basic concepts on which our society rests, the degree to which men have fought and died for the development of these concepts, and the tremendous importance of preserving such principles. Is it any wonder that, as a result of this flabbiness in the program, the school produces individuals lacking convictions regarding the desirability of our type of society, with no real faith in the democratic ideal, and with little desire to engage in self-sacrifice to preserve it?

Thus our first obligation is an aggressive indoctrination of the meaning of democratic society in the minds of our youth. The individual is deprived of no freedom of thought or action if he is taught the basic ideals or principles of democracy and is brought to see that, with all its weaknesses, democracy is as yet the best form of social life devised by man. This indoctrination should begin in the earliest grades of the school and continue through the entire program. It should be definite and systematic in nature and should give to each child a clear-cut understanding of the nature and values of the society in which he lives, as well as the desire to keep and improve that basic social structure.

While interpretation of the basic principles upon which our society rests may change from time to time, the concepts themselves have remained relatively constant for 150 years and undoubtedly will continue to characterize our society as long as it exists in its present form. A set such as those referred to by the Educational Policies Commission as the "minimum essentials of democracy"¹ might well serve as a core around which to build such a program of indoctrination.

Our first duty, then, is to operate the schools so that this or a similar set of principles upon which we might agree becomes a part of the total understanding possessed by every individual enrolled. Emphasis should be placed on the word "understanding" because this material, naturally, cannot be presented as a series of rote facts to be memorized and forgotten, but only as a set of basic ideas to be developed through a process of reasoned understanding on the part of the individual.

¹ Educational Policies Commission, *op. cit.*, pp. 7-38.

PURPOSES OF EDUCATION FROM POINT OF VIEW OF INDIVIDUAL

If we are to assure the success of our society, if we are to "secure the blessings of liberty to ourselves and [especially to] our posterity," education must do more than to provide citizens with a knowledge of, and a faith in, democracy and the willingness to face heavy self-sacrifice in its defense. Attention must also be turned to the individual in an effort to determine the responsibility of education to each boy and girl enrolled in the school. Thus we inquire: From the point of view of the individual, what is the primary purpose of education?

To answer this question is difficult, but the answer is undoubtedly associated, on the one hand, with the necessity of developing to the fullest possible extent in each individual the ability essential to an adequate defense of his faith and, on the other, with the maximum development of his powers for personal satisfaction and happiness. Put differently, it is necessary to give each person the benefit of certain basic disciplines designed to fit him for the part he must play in society, both as a believer in, and defender of, that society and as a potentially happy and successful citizen of that culture.

The word "discipline" is used consciously, not to mean correction or punishment, but rather to mean control or training. It is the writer's belief that youth in many cases are being permitted to grow up in an undisciplined manner in the sense that they have too little control over their minds, bodies, emotions, or character. This lack of control, or lack of discipline, weakens the virility of society and makes it difficult for individual citizens to withstand the stresses and strains of their environment.

Educators have suggested frequently that the home no longer exerts the influence we expect it to bear in the development of the individual, especially in providing these basic disciplines. To some degree, this same tendency is apparent in the educational program and should be corrected before it is too late.

Part of the difficulty lies in our partial assimilation of certain concepts, which are as old as education itself but which are being given new emphasis in recent years. Many of these ideas have real merit when completely realized but are vicious when only partly understood by the educator. The recent emphasis on freedom illustrates

the point. It is urged that children be given freedom—freedom to think, freedom to plan, freedom to direct their activities and to determine their conduct. Such freedom is contrasted with the restraint placed on pupils in the past through teacher domination. Freedom in itself is, however, a relative matter, in the case of child or adult. Many educational leaders who urge more freedom in the schools realize that such a grant must be accompanied by willingness on the part of the individual to accept the responsibility which goes with, or even precedes, the privilege. The child as well as the adult must earn his freedom. While this fact is understood by many, it is completely ignored by others until, in many cases, not freedom but license results.

Only when the teacher demands that pupils under his direction demonstrate their willingness and ability to accept the responsibility which accompanies the freedom they desire is he fulfilling his obligation to the individual pupil. It is unfair to the child, as well as to society, to mislead him to the point where his definition of freedom is greatly at variance with actuality. He must be disciplined to ask for responsibility and as a matter of course to accept only the freedom which naturally comes with an adequate discharge of this responsibility. Such an approach should permeate the program of the school from beginning to end.

Space will permit no more than an indication of other elements which should be included as basic to the discipline of the individual. The following items will serve to indicate the types of discipline essential to the adequate development of the individual:

1. That discipline which comes from an adequate ability to use the fundamental tools of learning, such as reading, speaking, writing, and the basic number adaptations, in the solution of life-problems
2. That discipline which comes from a trained mind schooled in proper methods of solving problems, possessed of a continuous appetite for learning, and aware of its own strengths and limitations
3. That discipline which comes from an understanding of the power of knowledge and its contribution to the solution of individual and social problems
4. That discipline which comes from an understanding of one's body mechanism and a desire to maintain one's own health and that of others
5. That discipline which comes from an adequate control over one's conduct and which realizes the dangers of overindulgence

6. Finally, that discipline which comes from strength of character and which demands of the individual:
 - a) The realization that worth-while tasks can be accomplished only through diligent labor, and the willingness to pay the price necessary to such achievement
 - b) The conviction that, once a task is undertaken, it should, under ordinary circumstances, be continued until it is satisfactorily completed
 - c) The unwillingness to leave any task until it is completed at the highest level of achievement possible to the individual
 - d) The willingness to face, when necessary, heavy self-sacrifice for what or whom one believes to be right
 - e) The growing realization that the spiritual elements of life are the most important and that they represent the enduring values toward which the individual and society must constantly strive

CONCLUSION

It is obvious that only when such goals as these for the individual are served can society realize its own educational outcomes. In the last analysis we are forced back to the realization that education must be interested in making men—men who in some measure understand their culture, who believe in it, and who will work for its perpetuation in the realization that through such activities they are accomplishing the most for themselves. It should also be apparent that this service through education transcends anything which might be done temporarily to aid in the solution of immediate and critical national problems. Indeed it might well be said that only insofar as the schools achieve these fundamental goals can they be of real assistance in the solution of critical problems of the moment. In the end, democracy will prosper to the degree that it is made up of men disciplined to face the reality and struggle of life, assured of their ability to cope with problems, and willing to accept their responsibilities in a society which demands "the development of the universal sense of responsibility and self-sacrifice." This necessity, it seems to the writer, indicates the obligation of the school in a society such as ours at all times—critical or otherwise. It is to be hoped that our profession has the courage and the ability to face the task.

EVALUATION OF APPRENTICE TEACHERS

ROBERT C. WOELLNER

University of Chicago

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USE OF RATING SCHEDULES

THE evaluation of students hopeful of becoming successful teachers is a problem encountered by many teacher-training institutions. The procedure generally used is to allow students to disclose their abilities by actual performance in classrooms. This practice is based on the theory that by this means the relative merits of prospective teachers can be observed. The traits which are observed by supervisors of apprentice teachers are shown on the rating schedules used by the various institutions. What traits should be looked for is a real question in the minds of the teacher-supervisors charged with the responsibility of judging the effectiveness of potential teachers.

Various attempts to answer this question have led to many revisions of the rating schedule used by the apprentice-teaching instructors at the University of Chicago. Each revision has been an attempt to obtain a more useful rating schedule for reporting observations of essential characteristics of apprentice teachers. When a recent revision was planned, it was felt that assistance could be obtained from a study of the rating forms used by other institutions of higher education engaged in the preparation of teachers. These forms proved sufficiently interesting to justify a review of them for other workers in the field.

Letters were sent to 119 colleges and universities asking for "a copy of the schedule or rating chart which your critic teachers use in evaluating apprentice teachers." One hundred and two institutions sent charts (fifty-four universities, forty-two teachers' colleges, and six normal schools). Four institutions reported that they use no rating charts, and three others sent no charts because they were working on revisions. One state university reported that it

uses a number of published forms. Although the majority did not mention whether or not they are satisfied with their present charts, thirty-nine institutions stated that they are not satisfied. Of this number, nineteen are revising their charts, and seven institutions report that they are planning to revise them.

TRAITS INCLUDED ON RATING SCHEDULES

When the traits listed on the 102 rating schedules were combined into one list, it was found that 252 traits are rated. Only 10 traits appear on more than 50 charts, and 44 on more than 25 charts. Thus 208 of the 252 traits appear on only 25 or fewer charts, and 146 traits appear on only 9 or fewer of the charts. The mean number of items on the 102 charts is 32. This average number of items on a rating chart is worth noting because, in connection with the distributions of traits, it shows the great lack of uniformity in rating schedules in these institutions. A closer consideration of the 252 traits reveals a confused condition in regard to measurement and terminology. These traits are difficult to define, and they do not mean the same to all persons or even to the same person on different occasions. A statistical consideration does violence to their intended meaning or to their lack of meaning, as the case may be, but it does aid understanding of the main approaches being used in the field.

The ten traits most frequently found on rating schedules are shown in Table 1. When the definitions of these traits are compared, it is found that the inclusiveness of a term like "scholarship" varies from one chart to another. For example, the term "general information" was used in twenty-four of the charts and the term "intellectual efficiency" in twenty-two to indicate what other institutions subsumed under the term "scholarship." Therefore the wide variety of traits is, to a great extent, a problem of terminology. However, the use of an average of 32 items in the 102 charts justifies an attempt to group the traits to show the main approaches being used in measurement of potential effectiveness in teaching. This grouping may necessitate a rather general treatment of the meaning of some traits. The marginal terms employed by various institutions in judging a common situation, some of which are shown in Table 2, will

contribute to an understanding of the content of these main approaches.

A residual category of "personal qualities" is also given in Table 2 to include some of the other traits found upon the charts. This classification must remain undefined because the terms included in it are vague in meaning. A number of the terms with relatively low specificity of meaning are included under this category. Because of lack of space, it is impossible to mention all such traits listed; they range all the way from "unselfishness" (1), "discretion" (3), to "inspiration" (1), "imagination" (2), "temperamental efficiency" (18), and many other conceivable human qualities.

TABLE 1
TEN TRAITS MOST FREQUENTLY FOUND ON SCHEDULES
FOR RATING APPRENTICE TEACHERS

Trait	Frequency of Mention	Trait	Frequency of Mention
Scholarship	79	Provision for individual differences	58
Appearance	75	Professional attitude ..	54
Use of English	71	Discipline	52
Co-operation	70	Questioning skill	51
Voice	65		
Lesson preparation	61		

METHOD OF RATING

The next question to consider is: How are these traits used on the rating charts? A large portion of the charts (forty-two) are scored by a five-point scale without graduation between the points. However, three institutions have a two-point scale; fifteen, a three-point scale; nine, a four-point scale; fourteen, a five-point scale with graduations between points; three, a six-point scale; one, a seven-point scale; two, a point rating with no classification; and thirteen do not have a point scale but allow for comments after each trait. All except twenty institutions include on the rating chart space for general comments. In regard to the definition of points, fifty-nine institutions give general definitions of the traits to be rated, and fourteen give specific definitions, while twenty-nine institutions make no explanations of the traits.

Seventy-two institutions either give no directions or include only technical directions for using the entire scales. The persons scoring the charts of the other institutions are given various instructions:

TABLE 2
SOME TRAITS MENTIONED ON RATING SCHEDULES, WHICH COULD
BE CLASSIFIED UNDER LARGER DIVISIONS

Trait	Frequency of Mention	Trait	Frequency of Mention
Scholarship:		Provision for individual differences— <i>continued</i> :	
General information.....	24	Supervised study.....	22
Intellectual efficiency.....	22	Ability to diagnose.....	10
Appearance:		Professional attitude:	
Dress.....	30	Attention to routine.....	35
Orderly habits and neatness.....	30	Punctuality.....	35
Posture.....	17	Care of classroom.....	27
Refinement.....	11	Loyalty.....	20
Lesson preparation:		Record-keeping.....	20
Organization.....	37	Care of materials.....	17
Assignment.....	36	Accuracy.....	14
Use of teaching principles.....	27	Administrative efficiency.....	11
Selection of objectives.....	25	Personal qualities:	
Economy of time.....	20	Initiative.....	46
Use of illustrative material.....	18	Poise.....	46
Achievement measurement.....	15	Tact.....	46
Self-direction.....	15	Enthusiasm.....	45
Adaptation of materials.....	14	Growth.....	30
Anticipation of difficulties.....	13	Social efficiency.....	28
Choice of activities.....	13	Sympathy.....	28
Impress important facts.....	13	Moral efficiency.....	24
Evaluation of subject matter.....	12	Personality.....	19
Economy of effort.....	11	Sincerity.....	19
Practical application.....	10	Integrity.....	17
Provision for individual differences:		Self-confidence.....	12
Understanding the child.....	35		

to recall the best teacher the critic knows and rate accordingly; to check only traits of which the rater is competent to judge; to consider the traits in comparison with other students at the same level of training; to be frank; to use previous observations of inferior and superior teachers as a measuring stick. Only two institutions give detailed directions.

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, it can be stated on the basis of this study that universities, teachers' colleges, and normal schools use a rating chart for practice teachers, scored on a five-point scale without gradations between points, with no specific definitions of the points and only technical directions for using the scales. There is some evident dissatisfaction with these rating charts and their failure to aid effective measurement; there is no evidence of any effort to differentiate the traits and techniques that may be peculiarly involved in the work at the different grade levels and in the different fields; and there is little agreement in terminology or in the amount of importance to be given the various traits in rating.

The *Education Index* for the years 1929-40 lists a total of about 250 references to teacher ratings, of which only a very small number have to do directly with the work of the student teacher and evaluation of that work. Apparently there is real need for further understanding of this professional problem.

A COMPARISON, AT DIFFERENT AGE LEVELS, OF TWO TYPES OF TESTS OF ENGLISH USAGE

LELAND P. BRADFORD
University of Illinois

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DURING recent years there have appeared many studies dealing with the relative effectiveness of various methods of presenting the items in objective tests constructed to determine knowledge of material learned, but very little has been done to determine types of tests which will, presumably, indicate the degree of use of material learned. Especially in the field of English usage should the latter approach be of value. Tests of English usage or knowledge of grammar have most frequently made use of sentence items in which errors are to be recognized and corrected. Not a few have used multiple-choice, true-false, and completion items, while a very small number have utilized a matching technique.

Principles of grammar and patterns of speech behavior are, for the most part, taught by a formal method, and it is hoped that such teaching will result in improvement in language habits in practical situations. To determine the extent to which such transfer takes place, tests should, as nearly as possible, measure the language habits of individuals in normal situations. On the contrary, most objective tests measure, in the same formal manner in which the material was taught, the recall or recognition of that knowledge, on the assumption, presumably, that the desired transfer may be taken for granted. Thus most tests are measuring merely the retention of knowledge of formal grammar. For example, in a test in which the items take the form of sentences isolated in context and meaning, one from the other, there is present a situation strikingly dissimilar to a typical situation in which a continuity of thought and purpose is dominant. Each sentence in such a test is approached by the individual with a mental set toward an error to be found and corrected.

In order to provide a situation more nearly similar to actual everyday use of language, a few standardized English tests have used a piece of prose in which are included the errors in grammar to be recognized, the idea being to introduce into the test a story or thought continuity and thereby approach more closely an average language situation. While nobody would claim that such a test situation is completely natural, it might be assumed to be less artificial than is a test in which sentences stand alone. However, the extent to which a story or paragraph type of presentation gives a different discrimination among individuals, especially persons of different age levels, has not, to the writer's knowledge, been investigated.

The study reported in this article attempted to compare the similarity or the dissimilarity of discrimination between the story form mentioned in the preceding paragraph and the more typical test in which sentences, isolated in meaning, contain errors to be recognized and corrected. The comparison was made with three groups: 250 pupils in Grades IX-XII, 195 university Juniors and Seniors, and 500 adults no longer attending school.

A test of English usage was constructed by the writer and given to these groups. The test was composed of two subtests: a short story of approximately five hundred words containing fifty incorrect usage items, distributed throughout the story at irregular intervals and in as natural a manner as possible, and a test of eighty sentences, seventy-five of which contained an error in usage to be corrected. The test had a reliability coefficient of .98, based on five hundred cases, corrected by the Spearman-Brown formula. The product-moment correlation between the subtests was .80.

The adults measured were employed by the Illinois Work Projects Administration as teachers in the Adult Education Program. (One purpose of the test was to determine the level of English usage of these adults, preliminary to the construction of a correspondence course designed to improve the English usage of adult-education teachers.) Although these adults might be considered a highly selected group, the individuals differed widely with respect to previous occupation, age, and education. Their previous occupations ranged from aviator to laborer to X-ray worker, with 125 occupations listed. The range of age was from 18 to 65, with a mean of 38.6

years. The education of these workers ranged from fifth grade through two years of graduate study, with a mean education of 12.38 years.¹

Thirty-three of the items in each of the usage tests were the same and were paired so that a comparison could be made of the two types of tests in terms of the similarity or the dissimilarity of their differentiation of the subjects. A random selection of these items is given below.

Story Test

6. He wanted to lay down again.
8. Each of us have fished often.
16. I set in the back part of the boat.
22. I took him off of the hook.
27. I done what he said.
35. Neither of our new comrades were lucky.
45. I give Jimmy some of my fish.
49. Them sure are beauties.

Sentence Test

56. The dogs lay under the porch now.
52. Each of the chairs are broken.
30. Mary sets patiently waiting.
44. Johnny fell off of the barn roof.
45. He done the work quickly.
66. Neither of the men are very honest.
23. He give me the money today.
27. Mary sure is a beautiful girl.

With thirty-three items common to the two types of tests, comparisons could be made of the responses of each group of subjects to the same item in two forms. Results for each pair of items were thus stated in the following terms for each subject group: percentage of cases right on both tests, percentage of cases wrong on both tests, percentage of cases right on the story test and wrong on the sentence test, and percentage of cases wrong on the story test and right on the sentence test. The means of these percentages for each group are given in Table 1.

As a measure of knowledge of English fundamentals, the percentage of right responses and the percentage of wrong responses for each group should be of some interest. The university students, as might be expected in view of their further training, had the highest mean percentage of right responses in both tests and the lowest percentage of wrong responses. The adults ranked next, while the high-school pupils were lowest.

¹ A further elaboration of the composition of this adult group is given in an article by the writer, "A Study of Certain Factors Affecting English Usage," to appear shortly in the *Journal of Educational Research*.

The percentage of answers that were right in both cases or wrong in both cases is important in this study in determining the extent of similarity of discrimination between the tests. The total mean percentages of similarity (either both right or both wrong) were 83.6 for the university group, 80.4 for the adult group, and 77.2 for the high-school group. In other words, four-fifths of the responses made by five hundred adults on the same item in the two types of

TABLE 1
MEAN PERCENTAGE OF RESPONSES OF THREE GROUPS TO
PAIRED ITEMS ON TWO TESTS OF ENGLISH USAGE

RESPONSE	MEAN PERCENTAGE FOR—		
	Univer- sity Students	Adults	High- School Pupils
Right in both tests.	78.6	70.6	56.7
Wrong in both tests.	5.0	9.8	20.5
Right or wrong in both tests.	83.6	80.4	77.2
Right in sentence but wrong in story.	12.3	11.3	15.8
Wrong in sentence but right in story.	4.1	8.3	7.0
Difference.	8.2	3.0	8.8
Critical ratio of difference*.	3.0	1.2	3.7

* The formula for computing the critical ratio was $\frac{\text{diff.}}{\sigma_{\text{diff.}}}$. The formula for computing the standard error of the difference was $\sigma_{\text{diff.}} = \sqrt{\sigma_{M_1}^2 + \sigma_{M_2}^2 - 2r_{12}\sigma_{M_1}\sigma_{M_2}}$. This formula was used because the two variables were correlated.

tests were similar, and one-fifth were different. A little more than five-sixths of the responses made by the university group were the same for both tests, and a little more than three-fourths of the responses made by the high-school group were the same for the two types of tests. The differences in similarity among the groups were thus found to be slight. This fact lends importance to the further results to be reported.

While the amount of dissimilarity of response was not high for any group, it could be considered significant if it was predominantly in the direction of one type of test. For example, if there was a

tendency for subjects to miss an item in the story test while marking it correctly in the sentence test, or vice versa, such a tendency could be considered highly significant in terms of effectiveness of the teaching of English usage.

In 8.3 per cent of the cases, the members of the adult group recognized an incorrect item in the story test but failed to recognize the same incorrect item in the sentence test. On the other hand, in 11.3 per cent of the cases, individuals failed to recognize items as incorrect in the story test even though they recognized these items as incorrect in the sentence test. The difference between these two percentages (3.0) indicates that the sentence test was slightly easier for the adults. The critical ratio of the difference (1.2) indicates that there are eighty-eight chances in a hundred that the true difference between the percentages of response was greater than zero. This difference cannot be considered statistically significant. Consequently, for the adults one type of test obtained about the same results as the other.

In the university group, however, the difference between the percentages is much greater. In 4.1 per cent of the responses, items were recognized as incorrect in the story test but were not so recognized in the sentence test, while in 12.3 per cent of the responses, incorrect items were not recognized in the story test but were recognized in the sentence test. The difference is all the more remarkable because, as evidenced by the higher percentages of right responses in both tests, the university group had a greater knowledge of English fundamentals. Yet they were less likely than were the adult group to recognize an incorrect item in the story test when they were able to recognize the same incorrect item in the sentence test. The critical ratio of the difference for this group (3.0) indicates that there is less than one chance in a thousand that the true difference between the percentages is zero or less. Thus this difference can be considered statistically significant; that is, there is a significant tendency for the university group to find the same item easier in the sentence test than in the story test.

The high-school group showed an even greater difference between the two types of tests. The difference between the percentages for this group is 8.8, and the critical ratio of this difference (3.7) indi-

cates statistical significance. Like the university group, the high-school pupils found it easier to recognize an incorrect item in the sentence test than in the story test.

The logical interpretation of these results is that the teaching of grammar is so formalized that, in a test, errors in grammar are recognized much more easily when presented in the same formal fashion. It would indicate that teaching and testing have emphasized the recognition or recall of the material presented rather than the use of that material in practical and necessary situations. The extent to which this statement is correct is a measure of the lack of transfer from the learning of formal grammar to practical situations of expression. With adults, on the other hand, the formal aspect of the teaching of grammar tends to be forgotten, and the patterns of speech behavior have been determined by environmental factors other than attendance in school.¹ Adults are more likely to recognize an item as incorrect, no matter where it is found, than are students in school. While the results of this study are not conclusive, they are sufficiently significant to indicate more than a possibility that the conclusions drawn are correct.

¹ A further discussion of this point may be found in the writer's article previously referred to.

COLLEGE CREDITS EARNED BEFORE HIGH-SCHOOL GRADUATION

JOHN A. ANDERSON

Pasadena Junior College, Pasadena, California

*

WHAT happens when high-school pupils take college work? The records office at Pasadena Junior College recently completed a statistical study of the experience of seven hundred students who had taken work of college grade before completing requirements for the high-school diploma. For some years this school, which is organized under the 6-4-4 plan and includes the eleventh to the fourteenth grades, inclusive, has been allowing twelfth-grade students to take one or more courses of thirteenth-grade standing if they have met prerequisites and if their programs permit.

How well do they succeed? Does the fact of high-school graduation have educational significance in predicting success in college work? How well does the "terminal" student do in comparison with the university-preparatory student? What is the attitude of the universities toward these credits?

Answers to these questions are important in curriculum organization and guidance in any institution which houses the last two years of high school and the first two years of college in one plant. There are many capable students whose last semester or two in high school offer room for electives beyond the normal requirements for the high-school diploma, and there are many average or below-average students who have had to take one or more semesters beyond the normal eight to complete high-school requirements but whose final twelfth-grade semester may offer room for thirteenth-grade electives of a "terminal" nature. At Pasadena Junior College both these groups have been allowed to proceed with one or more college courses, and their experience, now covering several years, seems to indicate that the mere fact of high-school graduation has nothing to do with success in college.

PROCEDURE

In compiling the data used in this study, the writer examined the records of 4,876 students enrolled at Pasadena Junior College. It was found that 700 of them had taken one or more courses of college level during their twelfth grade. A list was made showing the name of each of these students, college course taken, marks, units, grade points, and the semester (12-1, 12-2, 12-3, or 12-4, the last two abbreviations indicating that the student took one or more extra semesters to complete the twelfth-grade graduation requirements). Unit and grade-point tabulations were then made under three main headings: (1) courses which give certificate (university) credit for any passing mark; (2) courses which give diploma ("terminal") credit for any passing mark and certificate credit for marks of A and B; (3) courses which give diploma ("terminal") credit only. These were broken down to show in which semesters the courses were taken.

RESULTS OF THIS COMPARISON

Before the figures of this tabulation are presented, some explanation should be made of the conditions under which these twelfth-grade students are allowed to take work of college grade. During the first four years of its existence Pasadena Junior College maintained a rigid classification of students into two groups, "recommended" and "non-recommended," based entirely on the pattern and the quality of the high-school work which the students had done during the ninth through the twelfth grades. At that time no non-recommended student was allowed to take any course of certificate grade, and no student who had not completed requirements for the high-school diploma was permitted to take thirteenth-grade work. It became increasingly evident that these two hampering restrictions were interfering with curriculum organization and with the guidance program; and the first one, which was having the much more serious effect of discouraging the rigidly classified non-recommended student, was finally disposed of by classifying the course, rather than the student, through a system of prerequisites and by allowing the non-recommended student to proceed in a diploma course in fields in which he had shown promise.

It is with the second restriction—withholding opportunity in college work until high-school graduation—that this article is mainly concerned. If the non-recommended student who had demonstrated aptitude in a special field was allowed to go on in that field, why not allow the twelfth-grade student the same privilege if his program permitted him to take advanced work without interfering with the immediate objective of high-school graduation? Acting on the assumption that there was no adequate educational reason why the twelfth-grade student should not be permitted to take thirteenth-grade work, Pasadena Junior College proceeded to give him that privilege.

Table 1 gives the results of a study of the records of seven hundred students enrolled at Pasadena Junior College at the close of the first month of the second semester of 1938-39, all of whom had taken one or more courses of the college level while still in the twelfth grade. Marks of A give three points per unit; B, two points; C, one point; D, no points; and E and F, minus one point. The grade-point ratio was found by dividing the number of grade points earned by the number of units attempted.

The high degree of success among students who had met subject prerequisites and had taken courses of certificate grade seems fully to justify this practice. The factor of maturity, if one judges by the records of the students in semester 12-1 compared with records of the students in the later semester classifications, seemed to have no value—unless, indeed, it had a negative value, for the younger pupils did better than the older ones. The 12-3 and 12-4 groups in the diploma or “terminal” courses appear to be the only groups making less than average achievement. Possibly, in these courses, in which there were no subject prerequisites, the same factors which caused these students to fail to get their high-school diplomas on time were again in operation in their attempts to carry thirteenth-grade work. There appears to be no adequate explanation of why the students in semester 12-3 should have fallen below those in semester 12-4 in the certificate courses. The results for the 12-4 group in general are probably less valid because of the smaller numbers of cases, especially in the conditional certificate and the diploma courses.

When this table is examined, it should be kept in mind that students of two kinds are permitted to take college courses before high-

TABLE 1

COLLEGE UNITS TAKEN BEFORE HIGH-SCHOOL GRADUATION BY STUDENTS
IN FIRST, SECOND, THIRD, AND FOURTH SEMESTERS
OF WORK IN TWELFTH GRADE

Semester and Type of Course	Number of Units Taken	Number of Grade Points Earned	Grade-Point Ratio
Semester 12-1 (249 students):			
Certificate courses.....	670	1,261	1.88
Conditional certificate courses.....	276	339	1.23
Diploma courses.....	426	535	1.26
All courses.....	1,372	2,135	1.56
Semester 12-2 (296 students):			
Certificate courses.....	823	1,417	1.72
Conditional certificate courses.....	393	631	1.61
Diploma courses.....	421	517	1.23
All courses.....	1,637	2,565	1.57
Semester 12-3 (125 students):			
Certificate courses.....	351	436	1.24
Conditional certificate courses.....	208	192	0.92
Diploma courses.....	130	101	0.78
All courses.....	689	729	1.06
Semester 12-4 (30 students):			
Certificate courses.....	100	157	1.57
Conditional certificate courses.....	34	36	1.06
Diploma courses.....	38	35	0.92
All courses.....	172	228	1.33
All semesters (700 students):			
Certificate courses.....	1,944	3,271	1.68
Conditional certificate courses.....	911	1,198	1.32
Diploma courses.....	1,015	1,188	1.17
All courses.....	3,870	5,657	1.46

school graduation: one represented by the more capable student who has carried an extra course or two in his high-school grades and is thereby ahead of schedule; the other, by the less capable student who has failed a subject or two and is, therefore, behind. The latter is more likely to be the 12-3 or 12-4 student whose high-school experience is merely repeating itself.

The totals given for the various semesters appear further to confirm the comment and conclusions of the preceding paragraph: The selected students in semesters 12-1 and 12-2 (with average grade-point ratios of 1.56 and 1.57) are decidedly good risks in college work of both certificate and diploma courses; the 12-3 students are definitely poorer risks; and, for reasons not apparent in this study, the 12-4 students are a better risk than the 12-3 students.

The data on the courses for "All semesters" seem further to confirm the effectiveness of the subject prerequisite in counseling twelfth-year students about taking college work before high-school graduation. The general success of such students in courses of certificate type (the grade-point average being 1.68) seems to be well established by these figures, viewed from any angle. The success of students in the conditional certificate courses is 21 per cent lower, but the grade points still average a strong C+. The success of students taking the diploma courses is lowest of all and is probably well below the school average, even for courses in this category. As pointed out in a previous paragraph, one influencing factor here may be the predominance in this group of students of limited scholastic ability, that is, 12-3 and 12-4 students who have failed in previous high-school work and are filling out their programs with the only thirteenth-grade courses open to them. They could well be expected to make marks lower than average. They are probably of that large and increasing group of young people who, although of limited academic ability, are now enrolled in the secondary schools because jobs are no longer open to them and for whom much educational planning needs to be done. Further consideration of their problem, however, is beyond the scope of this article, and there is here no convincing evidence of the desirability or the undesirability of enrolling them in work classed as thirteenth-grade courses during the extra semester or two it takes them to earn the high-school diploma.

UNIVERSITY ACCEPTANCE OF COLLEGE CREDIT EARNED BEFORE HIGH-SCHOOL GRADUATION

University registrars and admission officers very properly look with question on college credits earned by high-school students. The burden of proof for their acceptance rests with the applicant.

Little difficulty, however, has been encountered by Pasadena Junior College in getting these credits accepted by the universities when a clear case could be made out for the educational advisability of allowing these students to take college work in advance of high-school graduation. University authorities have been quick to recognize the unique opportunity inherent in the 6-4-4 type of organization to do the educationally advisable thing for the successful high-school student who has clearly demonstrated, by previous success, his capacity to begin some of his college work in the closing semesters of his high-school course. While this article presents no figures on the subsequent university careers of young persons who have had this experience, the records office at Pasadena Junior College is amply supplied with such data through reports received from the universities showing a high normal degree of success.

CONCLUSIONS

(1) Large numbers of carefully selected high-school students can carry college work with success. (2) Universities will accept credits earned by these students if previous and subsequent work justifies such acceptance. (3) Many students in junior colleges, while completing high-school graduation requirements, can begin thirteenth-grade work of a "terminal" nature with a normal degree of success. (4) The poorer-than-average record of the strictly "terminal" twelfth-grade student in thirteenth-grade work suggests a need for further study of the curricular offerings open to him.

TYPEWRITING IN THE UNIVERSITY HIGH SCHOOL

NELLIE L. MERRICK
Laboratory Schools, University of Chicago

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PURPOSES AND PROCEDURES OF INSTRUCTION IN TYPEWRITING

PERSONAL typewriting became a regular part of the curriculum of the University High School of the University of Chicago in 1939, after a year of experimentation and research sponsored jointly by the School of Business and the Department of Education. Strictly nonvocational, the course has as its chief aims: (1) useful skill in transcribing from typewritten, longhand, or printed copy; (2) ability to compose directly at the typewriter; (3) ability to use typewriting as a study tool; (4) fluency and accuracy in written language; (5) habits of self-criticism through editing and revising; (6) wider range of interests; (7) proficiency in letter-writing; (8) responsibility to one's self and to the group for effective use of time and care of equipment; (9) improvement in concentration, self-control, sustained attention, and pride in workmanship; and (10) application of skill to communication, record-keeping, and other written language needs in school and home situations.

This course is offered as an elective in Grades VII-X, inclusive. The class meets three periods a week for one year. There are from sixteen to twenty boys and girls in a class. Seventh- and eighth-grade pupils are usually assigned to one class, and ninth- and tenth-grade pupils to another. As in the other courses which require no preparation outside class, this course carries one credit for each class hour, or three credits.

Typewriters equipped with the Dvorak simplified keyboard are used because the scientific keyboard reduces materially the time necessary to acquire useful skill and therefore allows the earlier application of that skill. This keyboard, scientifically developed after

lengthy research by August Dvorak,¹ of the University of Washington, and his associates, was designed to fit the English language in such a way as to (1) divide the writing load properly between the two hands, (2) reduce the awkward finger motions (difficult reaches and hurdles, or jumps across a row of keys), (3) give each finger the load that it should carry, (4) concentrate the writing on the home row, and (5) eliminate the writing of words by one hand.

Figure 1 permits a comparison of the Dvorak and the "universal" typewriter keyboards in terms of row loads, hand loads, and finger loads. The Dvorak keyboard is easier to master and faster, more accurate, and less fatiguing to operate than the "universal" because it remedies the haphazard, awkward arrangement of letters on the "universal" keyboard, which not only bears slight relationship to letter combinations as they occur in the English language but was not even intended for all-finger touch typewriting.

While the left hand labors on the "universal" keyboard to maintain an even rate of speed on twenty-seven hundred relatively common words typed by it alone (such as "greatest," "were," "severe," "extra"), the more efficient right hand is powerless to help in maintaining that balanced rhythm so necessary in efficient typewriting. On the Dvorak keyboard only sixty-nine words (such as "keep," "puppy," "ox") are written with the left hand alone, and most of these are monosyllables. The right hand alone writes three hundred words on the "universal" keyboard; on the Dvorak, none.

Unnecessary finger hurdles and reaches and complicated finger-stroking patterns make up 30 per cent of all letter sequences on the "universal" keyboard. Twenty-one per cent of these awkward sequences are accounted for by such adjacent finger reaches as *er*, *dr*, *el*, *se*, *hi*, etc., and by such adjacent finger hurdles as *be*, *in*, *ex*, *mi*, *ve*, etc. Even more objectionable than the single-finger sequences (*ed*, *lo*, *rt*, for example) are the high-frequency one-finger hurdles (such as *ec*, *um*, *nu*).

On the Dvorak keyboard only 3 per cent of the letter sequences involve time-consuming and fatiguing hurdles, reaches, and compli-

¹ August Dvorak and Others, *Typewriting Behavior*, pp. 205-39. New York: American Book Co., 1936.

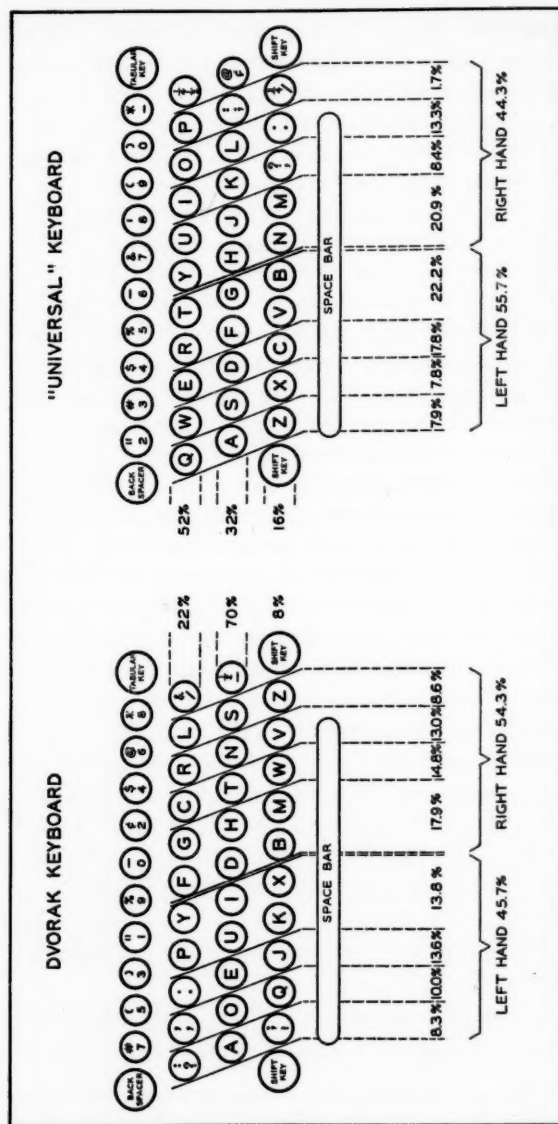


FIG. 1.—Percentage of writing done by each hand, by each finger, and in each row of keys on Dvorak and "universal" typewriter keyboards.

cated finger-stroking patterns. Also, the load assigned to each finger is exactly related to the relative skill and strength of the finger.

The tables in the typewriting classroom (or workroom) are of different heights to fit the children's statures. Teaching materials, including direct dictation, are suited to the age and the interests of the pupils. Correct technique,¹ as a basis for expert skill, and good work habits are stressed. The "Type-Pacer"² developed by Dvorak is used in building rates, insuring rhythm, and relieving tension. Printers' editing and proofreading marks³ are taught and used from the first or second week, the chief modification being that such marks are usually placed in the line of writing rather than in the margins.

The boys and girls who elect typewriting receive instruction for three class periods a week throughout the school year, from October to June. This schedule gives a maximum of ninety class periods, fifty minutes (fifty-five in 1938-40) in length, except the eleven o'clock period, which is forty-five minutes long. Since this study represents practical classroom research, no allowance has been made for irregular attendance caused by epidemics, personal and school trips taken by the children, club meetings, etc.

The typists choose their own subjects for composing at the typewriter (original writing in which ideas are expressed directly at the machine), and presumably they give some thought to the subject before class on Friday, when composing is to be done. Tests in copying and in composing, each five minutes in length, are given weekly. On the composing tests a half-minute warning is given to allow for finishing the last sentence. Gross rates (the number of five-stroke words written per minute for five minutes) are computed in the manner usual in typewriting classes. Compositions are edited immediately after the test, and in the following week they are usually revised at least once to improve the quality of the expression as well as the mechanics of writing. Occasionally pupils feel that a third or a fourth draft is necessary and desirable. Erasing, with due

¹ Nellie Louise Merrick and Robert Frederick Bown, with the collaboration of August Dvorak, *My Typewriter and I*. New York: American Book Co., 1937.

² August Dvorak and Others, *op. cit.*, pp. 317-19.

³ August Dvorak and Others, *Scientific Typewriting*, pp. 114, 120, etc. New York: American Book Co., 1939.

attention to neatness and the care of the machine, is permitted, after a few weeks, on second drafts, letters, school work, etc.

Since one of the chief purposes of acquiring skill in typewriting is that it may function as a means of written communication and record-keeping in both home and school situations, pupils are permitted and encouraged to use a typewriter, when convenient, in preparing school work, articles for the school paper, minutes of meetings, personal and business letters, labels, club work, and any other written material.

RESULTS OF TYPEWRITING INSTRUCTION

The data included in this report represent the twenty-seven boys and twenty-seven girls in Grades VII-VIII who elected typewriting during the school years 1938-39 and 1939-40, and the eleven boys and seventeen girls in Grades IX-X who elected typewriting in 1939-40. Intelligence quotients (Kuhlmann-Anderson test) of the seventh- and eighth-grade pupils ranged from 100 to 163, with a mean of 121. Their mean chronological age was 150 months. For the ninth- and tenth-grade pupils, scores on the American Council Psychological Examination ranged from 32 to 114, with a group mean of 74. Their mean chronological age was 174 months.

Brief and incomplete reports of typewriting in the University High School have already appeared in print.¹ The present report gives some evidence regarding growth in skill, sex differences, and differences in achievement at the two grade levels (Grades VII-VIII and Grades IX-X). Other and more detailed accounts of various aspects of the present study will appear in the future.

Growth in typewriting skill.—Growth in typewriting skill, as indicated by weekly group averages in copying and composing (gross five-stroke words per minute for five minutes), for fifty-four boys and girls in Grades VII-VIII and twenty-eight pupils in Grades IX-X, is illustrated in Figure 2. It should be kept in mind that each week represents only three class periods. A sampling of the scores charted

¹ a) Nellie L. Merrick, "What Shall We Do about Written Expression?" *Journal of Business Education*, XIV (March, 1939), 17-19.

b) Nellie L. Merrick, "How Useful Is Our Students' Typing Skill?" *Business Education Digest*, III (November, 1939), 275-76, 292.

in Figure 2 is given in Table 1, which includes scores for the fifteenth class hour (the fifth week), and the thirtieth, forty-fifth, sixtieth, seventy-fifth, and ninetieth class hours. At each grade level, not only is growth remarkably steady, but the composing curve shows a close relation to the corresponding copying curve. Greater gain was made the first half of the year, as might be expected.

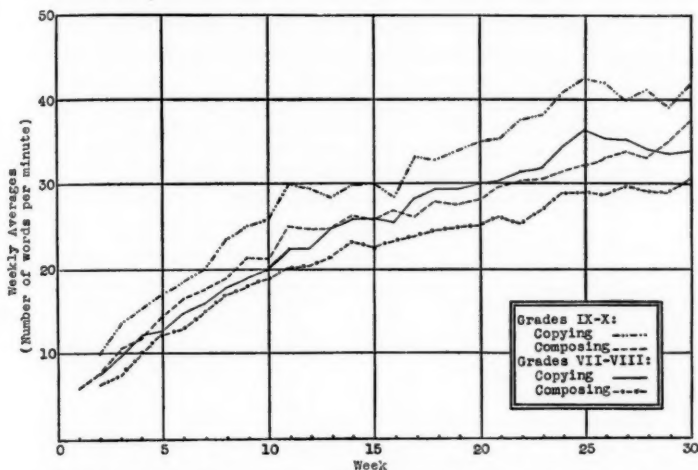


FIG. 2.—Gross copying rates and composing rates for fifty-four pupils in Grades VII-VIII and twenty-eight pupils in Grades IX-X during thirty weeks (of three class periods a week) of instruction in typewriting.

Sex differences.—Even more interesting than the evidence that it is possible for pupils of these ages to acquire superior typewriting skill in a comparatively short time and the fact that the ninth- and tenth-grade pupils seem to acquire greater skill than do those in Grades VII-VIII is the evidence that the girls in Grades VII-VIII have an advantage over the boys, which, however, apparently disappears two years later.

Some of the evidence regarding sex and grade differences, and their statistical significance,¹ is summarized briefly in Tables 2, 3, and 4, although the charts for weekly growth made by each sex sepa-

¹ Vivian Edmiston, unpublished study, University of Chicago, 1940.

rately at the two grade levels are not here reproduced. These computations are an effort to discover not only the amount of the difference between various sets of averages but also the extent to which such differences might be due to something other than chance.

Table 2 shows, for Grades VII-VIII and Grades IX-X, the group means and standard deviations, for girls and boys separately, at the fifth, fifteenth, and thirtieth weeks; the actual differences in the two observed means (in favor of the girls); and t , which is an index of the degree of certainty of the conclusion that a real difference exists.

TABLE 1
MEAN NUMBER* OF GROSS FIVE-STROKE WORDS PER MINUTE
TYPED IN FIVE MINUTES BY FIFTY-FOUR PUPILS IN GRADES
VII-VIII AND TWENTY-EIGHT PUPILS IN GRADES IX-X

CLASS HOUR	GRADES VII-VIII		GRADES IX-X	
	Copying	Composing	Copying	Composing
Fifteenth.....	12.8	12.4	17.1	14.4
Thirtieth.....	19.9	18.8	25.9	21.2
Forty-fifth.....	25.9	22.7	30.0	25.9
Sixtieth.....	30.1	25.1	35.0	28.1
Seventy-fifth.....	39.2	28.9	42.4	32.1
Ninetieth.....	33.6	30.5	41.6	37.3

* Computed from ungrouped scores.

In a manner similar to Table 2, Table 3 shows grade-level differences for boys and girls separately, and Table 4 shows grade-level differences for boys and girls combined.

According to Lindquist,¹ it is not satisfactory to declare, as has been customary in educational research, that a difference is significant when it is three or more times as large as its standard error, for this test is limited to the case where the sampling distribution is normal. When an attempt is made to discover whether observed differences in mean achievement are significant, the hypothesis that the difference is zero is being tested. If the hypothesis were true for the number of cases studied here, an absolute value of t as large as 2.576 would be found less than 1 per cent of the time. Hence it is

¹ E. F. Lindquist, *Statistical Analysis in Educational Research*, p. 16. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1940.

reasonably certain that an observed difference in Table 2, 3, or 4 is not entirely due to chance when t is as large as 2.576. It should be

TABLE 2

SEX DIFFERENCES IN MEANS OF COPYING AND COMPOSING RATES (GROSS FIVE-STROKE WORDS PER MINUTE) FOR GRADES VII-VIII AND GRADES IX-X AT END OF FIFTH, FIFTEENTH, AND THIRTIETH WEEKS OF INSTRUCTION IN TYPEWRITING

RATE COMPARED	GIRLS		BOYS		DIFFERENCE BETWEEN MEANS	<i>t</i> *
	Mean Number of Words per Minute	Standard Deviation	Mean Number of Words per Minute	Standard Deviation		
	Grades VII-VIII					
Fifth week:						
Copying.....	14.7	4.1	11.1	2.4	3.6	4.1
Composing.....	14.7	4.8	10.2	2.3	4.5	4.0
Fifteenth week:						
Copying.....	28.3	8.7	22.4	5.2	5.9	1.5
Composing.....	26.4	7.0	19.0	3.3	7.4	3.1
Thirtieth week:						
Copying.....	39.2	9.9	28.1	4.5	11.1	2.5
Composing.....	34.4	9.0	26.7	5.3	7.7	1.9
	Grades IX-X					
Fifth week:						
Copying.....	16.9	3.7	17.8	2.9	- 0.9	0.4
Composing.....	14.0	2.1	14.7	3.6	- .7	.4
Fifteenth week:						
Copying.....	28.3	8.1	33.2	5.7	- 4.9	.6
Composing.....	25.3	4.6	26.9	6.0	- 1.6	.4
Thirtieth week:						
Copying.....	39.9	8.9	44.5	7.2	- 4.6	.4
Composing.....	34.3	7.8	41.6	8.3	- 7.3	0.7

* E. F. Lindquist, *op. cit.*, p. 53.

noted, however, that, even when an observed difference in mean achievement is shown to be significant, the *cause* of the difference has not been established.

The data presented in Table 2 indicate that in Grades VII-VIII the girls wrote enough faster than the boys to make grading a prob-

TABLE 3

GRADE-LEVEL DIFFERENCES IN MEANS OF BOYS AND GIRLS SEPARATELY IN COPYING AND COMPOSING (GROSS FIVE-STROKE WORDS PER MINUTE) AT END OF FIFTH, FIFTEENTH, AND THIRTIETH WEEKS OF INSTRUCTION IN TYPE-WRITING

RATE COMPARED	GRADES VII-VIII		GRADES IX-X		DIFFERENCE BETWEEN MEANS	t*
	Mean Number of Words per Minute	Standard Deviation	Mean Number of Words per Minute	Standard Deviation		
	Boys					
Fifth week:						
Copying.....	11.1	2.4	17.8	2.9	- 6.7	7.6
Composing.....	10.2	2.3	14.7	3.6	- 4.5	4.5
Fifteenth week:						
Copying.....	22.4	5.2	33.2	5.7	-10.8	2.8
Composing.....	19.0	3.3	26.9	6.0	- 7.9	3.2
Thirtieth week:						
Copying.....	28.1	4.5	44.5	7.2	-16.4	4.1
Composing.....	26.7	5.3	41.6	8.3	-14.9	2.7
	Girls					
Fifth week:						
Copying.....	14.7	4.1	16.9	3.7	- 2.2	1.4
Composing.....	14.7	4.8	14.0	2.1	.7	.4
Fifteenth week:						
Copying.....	28.3	8.7	28.3	8.1	.0	.0
Composing.....	26.4	7.0	25.3	4.6	1.1	.3
Thirtieth week:						
Copying.....	39.2	9.9	39.9	8.9	- .7	.1
Composing.....	34.4	9.0	34.3	7.8	0.1	0.0

* E. F. Lindquist, *op. cit.*, p. 53.

lem if the number of gross words per minute in copying and composing were to be used as the chief basis for evaluating progress in typewriting. The tentative conclusion seems justified that there are

differences between the seventh- and eighth-grade boys and girls that cannot be accounted for on the basis of chance. The evidence in Table 2, however, does not show a statistically significant difference between the boys and girls in Grades IX-X.

According to the data presented in Table 3, the differences between the boys in Grades VII-VIII and Grades IX-X are statis-

TABLE 4

GRADE-LEVEL DIFFERENCES IN MEANS* OF BOYS AND GIRLS COMBINED IN COPYING AND COMPOSING (GROSS FIVE-STROKE WORDS PER MINUTE) AT END OF FIFTH, FIFTEENTH, AND THIRTIETH WEEKS OF INSTRUCTION IN TYPEWRITING

RATE COMPARED	GRADES VII-VIII		GRADES IX-X		DIFFERENCE BETWEEN MEANS	†
	Mean Number of Words per Minute	Standard Deviation	Mean Number of Words per Minute	Standard Deviation		
Fifth week:						
Copying.....	12.9	3.7	17.2	3.4	-4.3	6.0
Composing.....	12.4	4.4	14.3	2.8	-1.9	1.9
Fifteenth week:						
Copying.....	25.9	7.9	30.2	7.7	-4.3	1.3
Composing.....	22.7	5.5	25.9	5.2	-3.2	2.0
Thirtieth week:						
Copying.....	33.6	10.0	41.7	8.6	-8.1	1.6
Composing.....	30.5	8.3	37.4	8.9	-6.9	1.7

* Computed from grouped scores.

† E. F. Lindquist, *op. cit.*, p. 53.

tically significant, but not those for the girls. That is, the differences between the boys at those two grade levels are due to something other than chance. When data for boys and girls are combined, as in Table 4, there is no conclusive evidence that the differences between the pupils in Grades VII-VIII and IX-X are statistically significant.

FACILITY IN WRITTEN EXPRESSION

A way of compensating for the observed disadvantage of the seventh- and eighth-grade boys is to compare the typewritten and handwritten scores in composing.

The usual method of measuring handwriting rates cannot be used because rates with memorized or repeated copy and the short length of time (frequently only two minutes) would not be comparable with composing rates on the typewriter. Consequently handwritten composing tests were given and scored every five weeks in the same manner as were the typewritten composing tests. The first three of these tests were averaged in order that chance factors might be ruled out as nearly as possible, and each week's typewritten composing rate for each child was divided by this average.

Evidence not included here shows that three-fourths of the pupils in Grades VII-VIII, both boys and girls, had reached or exceeded their longhand facility as early as the tenth week (after thirty class periods) of instruction in typewriting. Table 5 shows that the skill of the boys and girls at this grade level was very similar; at the fifth week half of the boys had reached or exceeded 80 per cent of their initial handwritten composing rates, while half of the girls had reached 79 per cent. At the tenth, fifteenth, and twenty-fifth weeks, the median percentage for the girls was 7 ahead of the median percentage for the boys.

The disadvantage of the boys in typewriting at this age level is noticeably less when comparisons are made with handwriting rate. Equally important is the fact that *all* the pupils gained in facility throughout the learning period, no matter in which quarter of the class they scored.

The pupils in Grades IX-X showed less variation than those in Grades VII-VIII.

Indubitably the pupils with the lowest handwritten composing rates are potentially the most likely to make the greatest growth in facility of expression as measured by the relation between gross typewritten and handwritten composing rates. The averages of the first three handwritten scores (1939-40) are shown in Table 5. For the total group, the combined scores of boys and girls in Grades VII-VIII ranged from seven to twenty-five words per minute, with a group mean of sixteen. In Grades IX-X the boys and girls combined composed in longhand at a rate of from sixteen to twenty-nine words a minute, with a group mean of twenty words.

It is recognized, of course, that among the factors involved in the composing rates are facility or dexterity with the tool used, ideas

(having something to say), and steadiness of application. The pupils at the younger age level, particularly the little boys, lost time early in the year partly through inattention and partly because they ran out of something to say before five minutes had passed. This fact seems significant when children are being assisted in developing de-

TABLE 5

PERCENTAGE THAT TYPEWRITTEN COMPOSING SCORE IS OF HANDWRITTEN COMPOSING SCORE FOR PUPILS IN GRADES VII-VIII AND GRADES IX-X AT END OF FIFTH, FIFTEENTH, AND THIRTIETH WEEKS OF INSTRUCTION IN TYPEWRITING

SCORE	GRADES VII-VIII		GRADES IX-X	
	Boys (17.0)*	Girls (19.0)*	Boys (20.8)*	Girls (20.5)*
Fifth week:				
Highest percentage.....	114	150	89	89
Median.....	80	79	75	68
Lowest percentage.....	50	43	35	47
Fifteenth week:				
Highest percentage.....	257	360	152	159
Median.....	138	145	126	128
Lowest percentage.....	80	74	90	76
Thirtieth week:				
Highest percentage.....	325	500	275	224
Median.....	186	189	208	163
Lowest percentage.....	134	122	135	120

* The figures in parentheses represent the average number of gross five-stroke words written in the first three handwritten composing tests.

sirable work and study habits, but it will not be further discussed at this time. There seemed to be little difference between the average of the first three handwritten scores and the last three, although the evidence on this point is being examined more carefully.

LIMITATIONS OF THIS REPORT

It is recognized, of course, that the small number of cases involved in this study precludes definite conclusions. This study is, however, an extension of the Carnegie Study in Typewriting which was initiated at the University of Washington in 1933, and many of the suggestions are based on a much larger number of cases than appear in this report.

Not even slight mention has been made in this report of the typists' growth in spelling and accuracy of written usage; types of subjects chosen for composing; letter-writing; and possible relations between typewriting success and various physical, emotional, mental, and achievement factors. The objectives need to be restated in terms of pupil behavior. Case studies showing growth curves in the acquisition of skill in typewriting, interests of individual pupils as revealed by original writing, etc., would be extremely interesting. Discussion of the methods of teaching has also been omitted, although some brief suggestions regarding training pupils to compose directly at the typewriter as carried on in the University High School have already appeared in print.¹

EDUCATIONAL IMPLICATIONS

(1) By making use of the results of scientific experimentation and investigation, it is possible to reduce materially the time, energy, and money cost of teaching and learning typewriting. (2) Teaching typewriting in such a manner that it is unrelated to the written language needs of the pupils or to the school's educational purposes is as wasteful as the other extreme of not teaching it at all but merely permitting pupils access to machines. (3) Any minimum skill superior to handwriting in quantity and quality is useful, but doubling that skill gives a potentially more useful tool for study and personal use. (4) If it is true that ability to put down one's thoughts on paper in a clear and effective manner frequently lags behind proficiency in getting ideas and expressing them orally, boys and girls in Grades VII-X can profit greatly by instruction in typewriting. (5) Instruction in typewriting in Grades VII-X is not justified, however, unless the objectives are educational rather than vocational and the methods and materials are appropriate to the age level of the pupils and to the school's purposes. (6) A course of this kind is applicable to either an "academic" or an "activities" curriculum, and it should precede vocational specialization by several years. (7) The label given the course is unimportant so long as the instruction is closely related to pupil needs, interests, and activities outside the typing classroom.

¹ Nellie L. Merrick, "Sooner than One Might Think," *Business Education Digest*, IV (October, 1940), 245-46.

SELECTED REFERENCES ON THE EXTRA-CURRICULUM¹

PAUL W. TERRY
University of Alabama

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BELOW are listed sixty-seven references which include three books, three bulletins or yearbooks, and sixty-one articles in twenty-eight professional magazines. Most of the references present quantitative material, analytical discussion, or suggestions for practice derived from more than one school. A number of the references, however, deal with practices in single schools which appear to be well worth the attention of schools elsewhere with similar interests. The inclusion of a greater number of references than is usual seems to indicate that an extraordinary amount of significant thought was given to this field during the year 1940.

306. *Abstracts of Studies in Education at Pennsylvania State College, Part IX* (1940). Pennsylvania State College Studies in Education, No. 22. State College, Pennsylvania: School of Education, Pennsylvania State College, 1940.

The following abstracts bear on extra-curriculum activities: "A Study of the Load of Instrumental Music Teachers of Pennsylvania" by Paul E. Harding, pp. 27-28; "A Study of the Ability of Teachers To Rate Students on Several Traits Other than Scholarship by a Graphic Rating Scale" by H. A. Reehling, p. 57; and "A Study of Post-school Activities of Selected Members of the Hamburg High School" by Victor H. Transue, pp. 61-62.

307. ABT, LAWRENCE E., MENDENHALL, PAUL, and PARTRIDGE, E. D. "The Interests of Scouts and Non-Scouts," *Journal of Educational Sociology*, XIV (November, 1940), 178-82.

A comparison of the replies given to an interest inventory by more than eight hundred Scouts with those of a similar number of non-Scouts.

308. BAKER, GENEVA E. "Student Councils in Illinois," *School Review*, XLVIII (December, 1940), 771-80.

¹ See also Item 463 in the list of selected references appearing in the September, 1940, number of the *Elementary School Journal*; Item 434 (Crowley) in the September, 1940, number, Item 33 (Spears) in the January, 1941, number, and Item 156 (Struble) in the February, 1941, number of the *School Review*.

A descriptive, statistical analysis, together with a summary and conclusions, of returns from questionnaires and interviews with sponsors, which were provided by 175 junior and senior high schools concerning the objectives, powers, organization, officers, time allotments, constitutions, and activities of councils.

309. BERG, W. ROY. "Putting Action into Alcohol Education," *California Journal of Secondary Education*, XV (April, 1940), 214-16.
Describes the organization and activities of a post of the Allied Youth movement as a superior and impressive means of inducing strong interest, on the part of high-school pupils, in the challenge to sound living produced by beverage alcohol.
310. BLAYNEY, C. O., and TANKE, CARL. "Where Youth Can Discuss Its Problems," *California Journal of Secondary Education*, XV (January, 1940), 48-51.
Tells how pupils from twenty-five high schools in California held a one-day conference with much profitable youth-made entertainment and discussion of problems significant to them.
311. BLOUNT, GEORGE W. "Pupil Participation in School Management," *California Journal of Secondary Education*, XV (March, 1940), 157-59.
Describes the organization and the activities of a large group of pupils at the Abraham Lincoln High School of Los Angeles, which provides a wide variety of useful services to numerous people, young and old, in co-operation with the Co-ordinating Council of Social Agencies.
312. BORST, RICHARD WARNER. "Twelve Years of California Student Verse," *California Journal of Secondary Education*, XV (March, 1940), 164-66.
Describes the annual publication of a volume of poems produced by the members of the federated English and literary clubs of a large number of colleges in California.
313. BOYNTON, PAUL L. "The Relationship of Hobbies to Personality Characteristics of School Children," *Journal of Experimental Education*, VIII (June, 1940), 363-67.
Presents data derived from a study of nearly forty-eight hundred pupils, about half of them boys and half girls, enrolled in Grade VI in 258 schools scattered throughout the country. Shows the relation of each of a number of hobbies to desirable and undesirable personality traits.
314. BREWSTER, MARGARET E. "A Study of Recreational Programs in Rural Schools," *Research Quarterly of the American Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation*, XI (May, 1940), 140-49.
A report of questionnaires returned by sixty-seven teachers in the rural schools of Washtenaw County, Michigan. Considers, among other things, the recreational activities of school clubs.
315. BROGUE, ELLEN BOOTHROYD. "Shall Pupils Be Delegates to National Meetings?" *Clearing House*, XV (December, 1940), 234-38.

A thoughtful discussion of the educational, social, and home problems involved in sending pupils of secondary-school age long distances away from home.

316. BROGUE, ELLEN BOOTHROYD, and JACOBSON, PAUL B. *Student-Council Handbook*. Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, Vol. XXIV, No. 89. Washington: National Association of Secondary-School Principals of the National Education Association, 1940. Pp. 194.

A comprehensive and practical manual of use to faculty sponsors and pupil officers of high-school councils and to students of extra-curriculum activities. The work is based on replies by sponsors and pupil officers of 361 councils in schools throughout the United States and its possessions to questionnaires and on studies of constitutions and of the relevant literature.

317. CAMPBELL, LAURENCE R. "Educational Backgrounds of Journalism Teachers," *School and Society*, LI (January 20, 1940), 86-90.

Uses the returns from an eight-page questionnaire by 613 teachers in forty-eight states to describe the subjects taught, publications sponsored, and other activities carried on by journalism teachers and to estimate their preparedness for the work in the light of the courses taken in college and the practical journalistic experiences which they had undergone.

318. CAMPBELL, LAURENCE R. "School Publications: Asset or Liability?" *California Journal of Secondary Education*, XV (December, 1940), 485-87.

A brief, statistical report of returns from a questionnaire concerning attitude toward school publications on the part of teachers, principals, state departments of education, educational leaders, and pupils.

319. CARTER, GERALD C., and SHANNON, J. R. "Adjustment and Personality Traits of Athletes and Non-athletes," *School Review*, XLVIII (February, 1940), 127-30.

Compares scores obtained on the Symonds Adjustment Questionnaire and on a home-made score card of personality traits by one hundred basketball letter men and one hundred non-letter men in ten small southern Indiana high schools. More often discovers advantage on the part of the athletes.

320. CLEMENT, J. A. "Purposes and Practices of Student Activities," *North Central Association Quarterly*, XIV (January, 1940), 280-88.

A statistical report of questionnaire returns by four hundred schools divided into enrolment groups of approximately equal numbers. Concerned with problems of participation, numerous practices, and educational objectives.

321. "Concerning Liability for Safety Patrols," *School Review*, XLVIII (February, 1940), 84-85.

A brief quotation from an article in the *New York Sun* containing an opinion of Harry N. Rosenfield, confidential secretary to Commissioner Alberto C. Bonaschi, of New York City, warning school principals that they may not be immune to personal-damage suits filed for pupils injured while on patrol.

322. CONNOR, MARY L. "Meeting Individual Needs through Home-Room Committees," *Meeting Special Needs of the Individual Child*, pp. 363-69. Nineteenth Yearbook of the Department of Elementary School Principals. Bulletin of the Department of Elementary School Principals, Vol. XIX, No. 6. Washington: Department of Elementary School Principals of the National Education Association, 1940.
Describes a varied program of activities for the home room, through which individual needs may be met.
323. CORY, F. BYRON. "Whose Children Profit Most from Extra-curricular Activities?" *Nation's Schools*, XXV (January, 1940), 53-54.
A statistical report of the relation of father's vocation to extent of extra-curriculum participation of 473 boys and girls who had graduated from the high school at Creston, Iowa, during the six-year period of 1927-32.
324. CORY, THOMAS. "The Shepherd Pipe," *Journal of the National Education Association*, XXIX (September, 1940), 180.
Describes the management and activities of an unusual type of musical organization for elementary-school pupils in the Clawson School at Oakland, California.
325. CRAWFORD, CLAUDE C., COOLEY, ETHEL G., and TRILLINGHAM, C. C. *Living Your Life*. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1940. Pp. xxvi+450.
A manual dealing with a comprehensive list of pupils' problems, including extra-curriculum activities. Could be used to advantage as a guide for home-room discussions.
326. CULLEY, BENJAMIN H. "Athletes and Grades," *Phi Delta Kappan*, XXII (April, 1940), 383-84, 389.
Compares 92 letter men of a single year in the Eagle Rock High School of Los Angeles with 112 athletes who did not make letters and with 310 nonathletic pupils with respect to achievement, inquiring mind, responsibility, social concern, and work habits. Separates data by sports.
327. DAGG, JEANNE. "Pan-Pacific Club," *Student Life*, VII (November, 1940), 7, 18.
Gives a brief account of the organization and activities of a club in the high school of Stockton, California, which is adapted to the fulfilment of a local need and allied to an elective course in history.
328. DANIELS, A. S. "Report on National Survey of Student Recreation in Colleges and Universities," *Research Quarterly of the American Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation*, XI (October, 1940), 38-54.
A detailed statistical study of questionnaire returns, made by officials of several hundred universities and colleges, concerning the need and facilities for general recreation. Provides a background of information valuable to persons interested in the relation of extra-curriculum activities to recreation.

329. DEIMER, R. R. "Aberdeen Has a Courtesy League," *High School Journal*, XXIII (April, 1940), 178-79.
Describes the organization and the activities of an unusual group at the Central High School, Aberdeen, South Dakota.
330. DUNN, WENDELL E. "The High-School Assembly as a Means of Teaching Democratic Ideals," *Baltimore Bulletin of Education*, XVIII (November-December, 1940), 99-104.
Describes the 1940-41 calendar of assembly programs of the Forest Park High School in Baltimore, which endeavors to employ this activity to produce understanding and skill in the use of democratic ways of life.
331. FREITAS, DOLORES MARIE. "Cross-examining the College Press," *Journal of Higher Education*, XI (November, 1940), 431-34.
Analyzes the returns from a questionnaire dealing with the problems, shortcomings, censorship, tendencies, and practices of college newspapers. Responses were obtained from more than 170 editors, professors of journalism, heads of social-science departments, and presidents.
332. GATES, GROVER A. "Are the Thrills Worth the Price?" *California Journal of Secondary Education*, XV (October, 1940), 363-65.
Describes injuries, fighting, cost, and community disorders sometimes provoked by interscholastic athletic contests and points out the greater social and educational value of placing chief emphasis on a program of physical education.
333. GERHARDT, ARMIN. "Conservation Club Work," *Journal of the National Education Association*, XXIX (March, 1940), 91.
Describes the organization and the indoor and outdoor activities of a large club in the high school at Neenah, Wisconsin, the object of which is to study and preserve all kinds of wild life in the state.
334. GRAFFLIN, DOUGLAS G. "Apprentices in Politics," *Clearing House*, XIV (December, 1939), 195-97.
Advocates affording pupils in social-science classes actual contact with civic activities of the community. Equally valuable for sponsors of governmental types of student activities.
335. HALL, CARROL C. "Messin' Around with a School Club?" *American School Board Journal*, CI (August, 1940), 51.
A science club in the White Oaks High School near Gladwater, Texas, developed a dehydrating press for sweet potatoes that may have substantial economic value for the adjacent farming communities.
336. HANSON, C. C. "The Visiting Pupil Plan," *Nation's Schools*, XXVI (October, 1940), 53-54.
Describes an effort to reduce unwholesome rivalry and promote co-operation in the student bodies of six consolidated high schools by means of a county-wide student council and systematic visits to other schools by selected pupils.

337. HARBY, SAMUEL F. "Truck Treks," *Progressive Education*, XVII (October, 1940), 412-13.
Tells how pupils on ten-week educational tours organize and conduct a community life of their own.
338. HARMON, JOHN M. "Educational Principles in Administering Intercollegiate Athletics," *Education*, LX (April, 1940), 513-16.
A thoughtful statement of principles designed to ameliorate the evils often associated with intercollegiate competition in athletics.
339. HARPER, LAWRENCE A. "Scholarship Becomes Respectable," *Key Reporter* (The Phi Beta Kappa News Magazine), VI (Winter, 1940-41), 1-2, 5.
Describes an interesting series of activities, useful to members and to other students, which are carried on by the Honor Student Association, an organization inaugurated by the local chapter of Phi Beta Kappa at the University of California.
340. HESS, WALTER E. (compiler and editor), with editorial assistance by PAUL E. ELICKER. *Promising Practices in Secondary Education*. Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, Vol. XXIV, No. 92. Washington: National Association of Secondary-School Principals of the National Education Association, 1940.
See the topics, "Guidance Practices," pp. 9-35; "Citizenship Achievements," pp. 126-61; and "Activity Programs," pp. 162-84, for material on extra-curriculum activities. Promising practices found in progressive schools are described.
341. HILTON, WALLACE A. "A Planispheric Planetarium for the Astronomy Club," *School Science and Mathematics*, XL (February, 1940), 172.
Describes an unusual and valuable type of home-made equipment for the astronomy club of the David H. Hickman Senior High School, Columbia, Missouri.
342. HOEK, FLOYD GERRIT. "The Junior Nurses' Organization," *American School Board Journal*, CI (August, 1940), 46.
Describes the organization and activities of a club which is devoted chiefly to helping teachers and pupils in health matters. Now consists of older girls in the elementary school, but the idea, apparently, would be even more useful in high school.
343. "How To Hold a Model National Convention," *Scholastic*, XXXVI (April 29, 1940), 34.
Tells how to organize temporary clubs during election years to give pupils practical experience in political techniques, such as holding a party convention, and describes a general meeting of such high-school clubs.
344. JOHNSTON, EDGAR G. "Clubs in the Small High School," *High School Journal*, XXIII (October, 1940), 279-83.

A helpful description, with concrete illustrations, of the types of clubs and of their activities which are especially serviceable in small, particularly rural, high schools.

345. KARR, HARRISON M. "Speech Contests: Good and Not-So-Good," *California Journal of Secondary Education*, XV (February, 1940), 103-7.

Reports the reactions of forty high-school teachers of speech in Los Angeles County to several questions bearing on the educational desirability of contests of different types.

346. KEENER, EDWARD E. "The Elementary-School Auditorium," *Elementary School Journal*, XLI (December, 1940), 269-76.

Discusses various uses of the auditorium, for extra-curriculum as well as curricular activities, and gives suggestions concerning the necessity for designing auditoriums in the light of the educational activities intended to be carried on therein.

347. KENNEY, H. E., THACKER, E. A., and GEBHART, H. C. "The Evaluation of Boxing as a College Activity," *Research Quarterly of the American Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation*, XI (March, 1940), 80-93.

A report of substantial value, based on questionnaire returns from athletic directors, directors of health services, and neurologists and psychiatrists. Includes definite recommendations of concern to high-school and college directors of physical education and to administrative authorities.

348. "A Leadership Club Active in One Senior High School," *School Review*, XLVIII (April, 1940), 244.

A brief account of an important type of activity in the David H. Hickman Senior High School, Columbia, Missouri.

349. LEWIS, GRACE T. "Friendliness through Home-Room Advisers," *School Review*, XLVIII (January, 1940), 55-59.

Tells how a leading girl was selected to look after the welfare of the new girls in each home room of the A. B. Davis High School in Mount Vernon, New York, and describes the varied and helpful activities which these pupil leaders carried on under the guidance of the dean of girls.

350. MENDENHALL, PAUL, and ALEXANDER, CARTER. "Guide to the Literature on the Boy Scouts of America," *School Review*, XLVIII (May, 1940), 363-67.

Lists sources of information, including bibliographies, government agencies and publications, index headings and indexes, news notes, periodicals, reference books, and investigations. Convenient help for students of the Boy Scouts.

351. NEBLETTE, C. B. "Photography as an Extra-curriculum Activity," *School Review*, XLVIII (December, 1940), 764-70.

A carefully conceived discussion of the many educational values attached to work with cameras for pupil organizations. Lists thirty projects of varied nature which are suitable for such organizations.

352. PARKER, MARJORIE DEL. "Madame Manners' Gives a Weekly Program," *California Journal of Secondary Education*, XV (May, 1940), 282-83.

Describes an interesting and unique plan, including extensive pupil participation and the use of an inter-room communications system, for teaching manners in the Washington Junior High School of Fresno, California.

353. PFEIFER, KATHERINE. "The Biology Club as a Chapter of the Junior Academy," *School Science and Mathematics*, XL (April, 1940), 345-49.

A critical discussion of values, together with a description of the numerous activities engaged in, and facilitated by, the organization of science clubs as chapters of Junior Academies of Science.

354. RATHS, LOUIS. "Leadership and Points of View," *Educational Research Bulletin*, XIX (February 14, 1940), 91-98, 116.

A significant exposition of those new conceptions of leadership that emphasize group thought and decision and the continuous residence of authority in the group, as contrasted with traditional conceptions which place one person in authority. Valuable for all advisers of student activities.

355. REAM, GLEN O. "High-School Archeology," *Progressive Education*, XVII (October, 1940), 414-15.

Describes the activities and achievements, over a period of two years, of the Archeology Society at the high school in Albuquerque, New Mexico, including its final metamorphosis into a course of study.

356. RICE, CECIL L., and HAUBERG C. A. "Cristobal Evolves an Activities Point System," *Nation's Schools*, XXVI (October, 1940), 58-60.

Describes the operation of an unusual point system that places responsibility on many pupils and interests a large number of them.

357. RIKARD, GARRETT E. "Superior Pupils Take Charge of the School's Affairs," *Meeting Special Needs of the Individual Child*, pp. 416-21. Nineteenth Yearbook of the Department of Elementary School Principals. Bulletin of the Department of Elementary School Principals, Vol. XIX, No. 6. Washington: Department of Elementary School Principals of the National Education Association, 1940.

Describes the plan of organization and the activities used to develop leadership among superior pupils in an elementary school.

358. RIVETT, B. J. "The Relation of Athletics to the High-School Program," *North Central Association Quarterly*, XIV (January, 1940), 275-79.

A statistical report by the Committee on Curriculum Trends of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools. Based on 380 returns to a questionnaire from schools in 20 states. Questions deal with practices and attitudes of school officials.

359. RUFF, JOHN. "Vitalizing the School Program for All Youth: Promising Efforts in This Area," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals*, XXIV (February, 1940), 66-70.
Among other things, describes progressive developments in the extra-curriculum programs of three secondary schools in Missouri.
360. SCHULTE, SISTER MARY LEONTIUS, O.S.F. "Extra-curricular Mathematical Activities in Secondary Schools," *Mathematics Teacher*, XXXIII (January, 1940), 32-34.
Presents an interesting list of literary contributions, games, recreational puzzles, and drawings which constitute useful and entertaining activities for mathematics clubs.
361. SEASHORE, CARL E. "Youth and Music," *School Review*, XLVIII (April, 1940), 268-77.
Discusses the significance to youth of a number of types of musical activity, including extra-curriculum activities in and out of school.
362. SHEFFER, W. E. "Should Junior High School Boys Take Part in Inter-school Games?" *Nation's Schools*, XXVI (December, 1940), 54-55.
Reports the judgments of eleven selected authorities in athletics, physical education, and health on the question raised in the title.
363. SHELDON, H. H. "The Science Club Program of the American Institute," *School Science and Mathematics*, XL (April, 1940), 365-67.
A brief description of the facilities available from the American Institute of New York City for the use of science clubs in high schools and colleges.
364. SIMPSON, RAY H. "The Effect of Discussion on Intragroup Divergencies of Judgment," *Quarterly Journal of Speech*, XXV (December, 1939), 546-52.
A statistical study of 132 college women and the effect of group discussion on their judgments of the aesthetic value of pictures in the McAdory Art Test. Describes a method of investigation and gives outcomes of interest to the sponsors of extra-curriculum activities which are intended to influence pupil opinion.
365. SMITH, A. P. "High-School Movie Production," *Journal of the National Education Association*, XXIX (January, 1940), 23-24.
Tells how a photography club and the science classes co-operated to acquire equipment and produce a moving picture depicting a typical day at school, which was designed to acquaint the entire pupil population with the significance of the educational advantages that they enjoyed.
366. SMITH, ENID S. "A Procedure for Appraising Clubs," *School Review*, XLVIII (February, 1940), 108-18.
Describes comparatively objective methods of obtaining from members, sponsors, and other teachers data that, over a period of time, will indicate whether a club will live, be absorbed into the curriculum, or die. The problem was developed at the McKinley High School of Honolulu.

367. STALEY, SEWARD C. *Sports Education*. New York: A. S. Barnes & Co., 1939. Pp. viii+326.
An advanced treatment of the subject, including a number of topics which are of interest to the advisers of physical-education activities and to administrative officers in charge of the program of extra-curriculum activities.
368. STEINWALD, OSMAR P. "Pre-band Instruments—The Melody Flute," *Baltimore Bulletin of Education*, XVII (January-February, 1940), 83-84.
A brief description of the value of a simple musical instrument as a means of distinguishing at an early age whether a child has sufficient musical interest and aptitude to justify admittance to a band or purchase of an instrument.
369. SUPER, DONALD E. "The Educational Value of Stamp-collecting," *Journal of Educational Psychology*, XXXI (January, 1940), 68-70.
An effort to measure by standard tests the effect of stamp-collecting on the knowledge of social studies and its relation to mental ability of 122 Juniors and Seniors in the high schools of Worcester County, Massachusetts.
370. TERRY, PAUL W., and SIMS, VERNER M. *They Live on the Land: Life in an Open-Country Southern Community*. Studies in Education, No. 1. University, Alabama: Bureau of Educational Research, University of Alabama, 1940. Pp. xii+314.
See especially pages 202-4, which describe the extra-curriculum activities of the school of the community in question, and the topic, "Leaders in Training," pp. 306-11, which gives numerous details concerning the boys and girls who managed the juvenile organizations of school and community.
371. WASHKE, PAUL R. "A Study of Intramural Sports Participation and Scholastic Attainment," *Research Quarterly of the American Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation*, XI (May, 1940), 22-27.
A statistical study carried on at the University of Oregon during the years 1931-36. Compares 271 participants with the same number of non-participants with respect to grade-point average.
372. WILKINS, ERNEST H. "On the Distribution of Extra-curricular Activities," *School and Society*, LI (May 18, 1940), 651-56.
A valuable statistical study of the extent of participation of the 1,584 students of Oberlin College in the year 1937-38 in 110 organizations. The students were distributed according to college year, grade, sex, and college, and special attention was given to a number of individual cases.

Educational Writings

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REVIEWS AND BOOK NOTES

HISTORY AND PHILOSOPHY INTERWOVEN.—Believing that acquisition of techniques and methods is of little value to a teacher without an understanding of the philosophical bases underlying them and that philosophy is best comprehended in relation to the social and economic conditions from which it emerges, Professors Eby and Arrowood have issued an account¹ of ancient and medieval education which presents in one volume both the philosophy and the educational history of the periods. In a time when we are being so frequently told that for true wisdom we must turn to the thinkers of the remote past, this exposition of more than nine hundred closely packed pages attracts immediate attention.

Three introductory chapters, concerned with the education of the primitive peoples, of the Egyptians, and of the Hebrews, respectively, are followed by an exposition of Greek education involving seven chapters. An entire chapter is given to Plato and another to Aristotle. Next, the long and slow decline of Greek education during the Hellenistic era is traced. This chapter is one from which some valuable lessons could be learned by persons who would confine education to the transmission of the achievements of the past. The story of Roman schools occupies four chapters, after which the fortunes of education are followed through the Dark Ages, the flowering of the Middle Ages, the rise of the universities, the development of courtly training and of the municipal schools, and finally through the Renaissance. Each type of school is explained both in terms of events and in terms of the philosophical systems of its period, and each period is characterized in a final section bringing together the outstanding features of the period, with an evaluation.

In comparing this volume with others in the same or neighboring areas, one might point out that in its account of philosophy it differs from such books as Rupert C. Lodge's *Philosophy of Education* (New York: Harper & Bros., 1937) by emphasizing periods of time rather than schools of thought; and similarly from John S. Brubacher's *Modern Philosophies of Education* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1939), which is organized in terms of philosophical problems rather than periods or schools; and again from Carleton Washburne's *A Living Philosophy of Education* (New York: John Day Co., 1940), which is organized in terms of strictly educational problems. It differs from the existing histories of education in its distribution of space, since it gives only one chapter

¹ Frederick Eby and Charles Flinn Arrowood, *The History and Philosophy of Education, Ancient and Medieval*. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1940. Pp. xvi+966. \$3.75.

to education among primitive peoples; omits all reference to the educational systems of eastern or southern Asia; expands its account of education among the peoples near Greece, with an enlightening chapter on the education of the ancient Hebrews; and details in full the kind of education characteristic of a period of decadence by tracing the Greeks through their long decline after they had lost their national independence. Of course it differs from other histories of education in the amount of attention given to philosophy.

The best features of this book are the clarity and directness of its exposition (aided by a liberal use of graphic materials) and its comprehensiveness, as well as its thorough amalgamation of history and philosophy. This amalgamation allows philosophy to be illuminated by its setting, while the succession of mere occurrences in educational history are rendered more intelligible by a knowledge of the systems of thought dominant at the time they took place. Since the recurrent interest in an examination of the philosophic foundations of education is often thwarted by the professional philosopher's preoccupation with the technical problems of epistemology and ontology, thereby throwing into disrepute a study badly needed for solving contemporary problems, and since much of the philosophy that is taught nowadays has to be "bootlegged" into the classroom under another label, such as sociology or literary criticism, a book like the volume under discussion, which "humanizes" philosophy by relating it to the development of practice, should meet a genuine need in the education of teachers.

Less satisfactory features of the book are the occasional tendency to explain events in terms of political rather than economic or industrial changes and the somewhat commoner tendency to present only the conservative side of controversial issues. The latter tendency might be illustrated by the treatment accorded the Greek Sophists. On pages 316-17 the authors ascribe to them a certain body of beliefs which would apparently tend to undermine morals and then pass at once to a lengthy account of the moral decline of the state. The brief note included in a later summary that there is a difference of opinion about the influence of the Sophists is insufficient to counteract the impression already made. No mention is made of the position of George Grote in his *History of Greece* and of Professor Henry Jackson in his article on the Sophists in the *Encyclopaedia Britannica* (1) that there was no common body of doctrines or principles or methods held by the men called Sophists and (2) that the alleged moral decline in Greece at this period did not occur. Yet in view of current controversies in education this matter is very important; for some of the enemies of the "progressive" movement are using against their opponents the familiar "smear" technique so brilliantly exemplified by Herr Hitler: first make a certain group despicable and then identify your opponent with that group. A wider knowledge of the facts regarding the attitude of qualified scholars toward the Sophists would render somewhat more difficult this particular variety of foul play and would clarify tremendously the whole essentialist-progressive debate.

A second instance of presenting only the conservative side of a controversial issue is the explanation given of Plato's theory of ideas. We are told: "Ideas do not exist apart, or separate from one another, but are related in a divine order or perfect mind. . . . Plato considered the 'World of Ideas' to be the mind of God" (p. 353). That many philosophers consider the introduction of the Deity into the Platonic system of ideas to be the work of later writers under Christian influences is not mentioned.

However, these departures from accuracy and impartiality are comparatively rare and should not be overemphasized. The book as a whole is an excellent illustration of competent textbook-writing, and it takes its place as a real contribution to the teaching of both the history and the philosophy of education.

DENTON L. GEYER

Chicago Teachers College

WORKSHOPS FOR TEACHERS.—The idea of summer workshops has been revolutionary in its effect on experienced teachers. That idea is to provide a proper place and skilled help for teachers who are eager to solve very immediate and very practical problems. This little volume¹ tells the story of workshops concisely and effectively. After reading it, nobody could doubt that here is a new and a going concern, important to all teachers.

The book is very just in its presentation; it avoids great claims while presenting large ideas and concrete illustrations. It is also free from the expository pomposity which mars some educational literature.

In five brief sections, answers are given to common questions on how the workshop idea started and developed, what its essential characteristics are, how it is organized and administered, what its results have been in terms of teacher behavior, and what effect it may have on the future of educational training.

The section on the history of the movement describes the reasons for basing teacher education on the professional problems brought by students. In addition, the values of flexible and informal organization, the cross-fertilization of ideas from person to person and school to school, the spread of the idea to university centers, and the intense intellectual and emotional nature of a good workshop experience are pointed out.

In the second section some of these elements are explained at sufficient length to suggest the how and the why of them: why education should begin with student problems; how a narrow vision can be broadened; why it is important to take into account the whole child, the whole school, and the whole community; why it is essential to give teachers of a free democracy a share in planning their own education; why they must live rich and well-balanced lives.

¹ *Professional Education for Experienced Teachers: The Program of the Summer Workshop*. Prepared by Kenneth L. Heaton, William G. Camp, and Paul B. Diederich, with the assistance of members of the Committee on Workshops and various staff members and participants in summer workshops. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1940. Pp. x+142. \$1.25.

The third section, on organization, takes up the major types of learning situations: individual advisory conferences; "major" groups, lasting only so long as they are useful; groups formed from time to time by special request; general meetings, school groups, and the like. It also discusses the administrative arrangements necessary to aid and co-ordinate these means of learning and touches on the selection and training of staff, the selection of applicants, and other important administrative factors.

The fourth section gives impressive evidence of the effectiveness of workshops in aiding teachers actually to achieve changes in their own classrooms as a result of workshop experience. These include class work based on pupils' present needs and interests, the practice of democracy in school, improvements in evaluation, uses of many new materials of learning, and activities to insure continuous professional development.

The very brief conclusion poses, in a polite way, the following blunt questions: If these ideas work so well in the summer, why not use them in the winter programs of teacher-training institutions? If this is good for some teachers, why not for all? Are the desire and the possibility of being at once scientific, artistic, and democratic in teacher training limited to workshops or open to all university staffs? Should not teacher-training institutions care as much about in-service training as about pre-service training?

A word about the authors may be in order. Kenneth L. Heaton, who has done much of the writing, has been the co-ordinator of workshop arrangements for the past several years; through his wide firsthand knowledge of the program he is well equipped to deal with the subject in a useful way. Camp and Diederich have recently concluded a year's study of the effects of workshop experience on teachers' work in the classrooms.

It would be contrary to custom to close a review with no negative criticism. In this instance the reviewer feels that, in spite of the exceedingly excellent job which has been done in this book, it is possible to feel regret that in the case of Mr. Diederich, long a Daniel in the lions' den of controversial ideas, only one of his forthright and expressive uses of factual language has survived the editing of the volume.

H. H. GILES

Commission on the Relation of School and College
Progressive Education Association
Ohio State University

INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIALS FOR STUDENT TEACHING.—There is ample evidence to indicate that superintendents, principals, and department heads, as employing officers of school systems, look with much favor upon applicants who have achieved marked success in student teaching. Experienced teachers attest to the belief that student teaching was one of the most important and useful of their college courses. State certificating bodies and higher institutions con-

cerned with the education of teachers are increasingly requiring the satisfactory completion of courses in student teaching. Despite these facts, there is a dearth of well-organized material available to instructors offering such courses.

*Student Teaching: An Experience Program*¹ is a most welcome contribution. The ten chapters of the book present materials essential to a series of thorough-going experiences comprising student teaching and place much emphasis on the necessity for studying "human material" and on an enlarged conception of methodology. However, the book will occupy an important place, not only in the literature especially adapted to courses in student teaching, but also in the literature generally applicable to courses in methodology—that area which some of us would prefer to call "applied psychology."

The author states:

Student teaching always has been and is likely to continue to be the most important phase of the professional education of prospective teachers. But there are many aspects of these pre-service experiences as they are commonly found in practice that can be improved. The deficiencies cannot all be listed here, but among those that need urgent attention in many institutions are the following: (1) The concept of student teaching is too limited. . . . (2) Supervising teachers are overloaded. . . . (3) The instructional materials for courses in student teaching are amazingly meager. . . . (4) The manuals for the guidance of student teachers are obsolete, fragmentary, and inadequate. . . . (5) Pre-service experiences too often fail to give pedagogical competence [pp. v-vii].

Any review of the book will consider the extent to which the author has held to his purpose.

The book does not in any way leave the reader with a limited concept of student teaching. In fact, it is a most complete and detailed résumé of the activities common to superior teaching. It postulates a program in which student teachers will develop for pupils a learning environment that should encourage initiative and originality.

The "overloaded" supervisor will find much information readily accessible in *Student Teaching*. The extensive annotated bibliographical references cited throughout indicate the author's belief that, whether a supervisor is overloaded or not, it is necessary for him to keep informed about best practices by reading from many current sources. He cannot afford to rely too much on any one authority. Success in supervision depends, in a large measure, on the expression of originality. Throughout the book the author emphasizes the importance of conferences between the student teacher and the supervisor for the co-ordinating of theory and practice, and he provides a wealth of material suitable for such conferences.

This book has gone so far beyond the scope of what has been considered a manual that it is entirely out of such a classification.

¹ Raleigh Schorling, *Student Teaching: An Experience Program*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1940. Pp. xiv+330. \$2.50.

Pre-service experiences too often fail to give pedagogical competence. To the greatest extent possible everything that a student teacher does should come to have meaning. His study of philosophy, educational psychology, the curriculum, method, the needs of public education—all these should be integrated into a single pattern of his knowledge and control of pupil growth and development [p. vii].

This emphasis is developed in some detail in the chapters on "Studying the Human Material" and "The Broader Concept of Appraisal." The emphasis is both appropriate and necessary since success in student teaching is not possible unless the student teacher is able to bridge the gap sometimes existing between courses in educational theory and situations found in typical classrooms, to the extent that he synthesizes and applies such theory in developing the best possible learning situation for elementary-school and high-school pupils. Furthermore, such integration must be emphasized because of the disparity existing between the content of some of the subject-matter courses offered at the university level and taken by prospective teachers and the content of the corresponding courses to be offered at the high-school and the elementary-school levels by the same individuals in the capacity of teachers. *Student Teaching* will be helpful in bridging these gaps; progressive yet practical theory is implemented extensively and carefully. The pictures throughout the book, as well as the book itself, indicate the author's philosophy, which turns on a pupil-centered school; an emphasis on activities, especially those of the creative type; an emphasis on pupil-teacher co-operation; the development of natural learning situations; and the organization of pleasant classrooms, convenient laboratories, and inviting libraries.

The typography of the book is generally attractive. It is possible that too much of the richest material has been thrown into the smaller type, thus suggesting a certain minimizing of its importance.

CHARLES W. SANFORD

University High School
University of Illinois

A HISTORICAL APPROACH TO PROVISIONS FOR GIFTED AND RETARDED CHILDREN.—The problem of adapting a school program to the child whose intellectual capacities deviate in the extreme from those of the normal youngster has troubled school administrators and teachers alike for many years. The moment educators ceased arbitrarily fitting the child into the curriculum, the gifted child and the retarded child became, and for the most part have remained, educational problems. The literature abounds with studies in this area, many of which indicate the general confusion in the minds of educators concerning the best or the most feasible method of handling the situation. Numerous procedures have been suggested, some put into practice, many discarded, a few retained for further consideration and experimentation.

Recently a study¹ has appeared which has aimed to examine, from a historical approach, the development of administrative provisions for superior and retarded children. The method used in this investigation was to examine the annual reports of school administrators and boards of education of ten large cities in the United States and to note all references to educational provisions for backward and superior children. The period of time included in the report is from 1870 to 1940, and the following cities were investigated: New York, Chicago, Philadelphia, Cleveland, St. Louis, Baltimore, Boston, Pittsburgh, San Francisco, and Milwaukee. The year 1870 is well chosen as the approximate year when educators were beginning to think seriously in this direction. It was at this time that Superintendent William T. Harris, of St. Louis, with his keen insight into educational problems generally, was first stating his convictions concerning education for exceptional children.

In chapter ii Gossard has traced the educational conditions at the beginning of the period, has indicated the prevailing educational theories of school administrators in 1870, and has shown the close correlation between changing concepts of education for superior and backward children and the growth of the philosophy of individual differences. Coupled with this trend, education for these groups is seen to be influenced by such factors as compulsory-attendance laws, the emergence of a science of education, and economic cycles of depression and prosperity in the business world.

Chapters iii through viii consist in a detailed examination of the development of various provisions for special education as these have been tried in the ten cities under consideration. In chapter iii variations in organization within the upper levels of public-school education are discussed. Such developments as the junior high school, the junior college, the normal school, and the summer school are shown historically to have a close relation to efforts toward a better educational opportunity for backward and gifted children. A chapter is devoted to homogeneous ability grouping. Others are given to discussions of the use of special classes, the extent and result of the use of plans of individualized work, and the types of modifications for meeting special needs which have been tried out in classrooms. The use of modified standards for varying capacities and the practice of using honors, noncredit classes, remedial teaching, and extra-curriculum activities are also discussed and considered in detail.

The study has been done with a great deal of care and has resulted in an extraordinarily detailed historical consideration of the points above mentioned. Although both the gifted and the backward child are considered, the study necessarily emphasizes the retarded child over his superior counterpart. This emphasis cannot be construed as a negative criticism of the investigation, however, for historically educators have been more concerned with the laggard, who often cannot care for himself educationally, than they have been with the intellectually

¹ Arthur Paul Gossard, *Superior and Backward Children in Public Schools*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1940. Pp. vi+172. \$2.00.

gifted child, who is usually capable of self-improvement with a minimum of teacher assistance. The study should be especially valuable to elementary- and secondary-school administrators and to those in higher education who are teaching courses in the administration of special education. From this report it is possible to get a clear picture of the conditions existing educationally for the groups being considered, the educational experimentation undertaken in the light of these conditions, the successes and the failures of these administrative experiments, and the present administrative use of various plans in the light of historical success or failure.

WILLIAM M. CRUICKSHANK

University of Michigan

EVALUATION OF CURRENT TEST MATERIALS.—A dependable reference work on tests and the literature of the field of testing is an essential part of the equipment of a modern school or school system. There are now so many tests pertaining to so many different aspects of learning and training that the problem of selection frequently baffles teachers or administrators who do not have ready access to a fully equipped professional library. The current volume¹ of a recently projected series of yearbooks covering the entire field of educational measurement provides both a catalogue and an evaluation of available tests. It is designed to meet the needs of specialists in psychological laboratories and guidance clinics, as well as those of teachers and supervisors in the schools.

This publication represents the combined critical work of some 250 test technicians and evaluation experts. It contains 512 reviews of tests designed for pupils of all age and school levels in the fields of achievement, personality, arts, language, intelligence, mathematics, health, home and industrial arts, reading, science, social studies, and vocational aptitudes. In addition, the yearbook provides selected portions of more than eight hundred reviews of tests and of books on testing. Nearly two hundred American and foreign journals provide the basis for these reviews.

The tests evaluated in this yearbook fall chiefly within the years 1939 and 1940, although older tests and some types of tests not well represented in earlier volumes of the series are included. It should be noted that the repeated preparation of this work over a period of years has resulted in several changes that have enhanced the value of the publication. Perhaps the most important changes are those which involve the altered logical grouping of the test material and better reviews by both the earlier and the new reviewers.

It is obvious that the value of a compendium of this kind depends on the competence of the personnel that furnish the reviews. Any value that the yearbook possesses is merely a reflection of the ability of the reviewers. A limited analysis of these reviewers will aid the reader in judging the merits of the book.

¹ *The Nineteen Forty Mental Measurements Yearbook*. Edited by Oscar Krisen Buros. Highland Park, New Jersey: Mental Measurements Yearbook, 1941. Pp. xxiv+674. \$6.00.

About 40 per cent of the reviewers hold professional positions of one kind or another in education in colleges or universities. Another 20 per cent are professional psychologists or professors of psychology. About 25 per cent are professors or instructors in content subjects, and the remaining 15 per cent are largely administrators.

Approximately 45 per cent of these specialists work at miscellaneous small colleges and universities. Another 10 per cent work in specialized institutes other than teaching institutions. Five per cent are connected with foreign institutions, chiefly in Britain. The larger universities most adequately represented are Chicago, Ohio, Minnesota, Columbia, Stanford, California, Iowa, and Yale, somewhat in that order. It is obvious, however, that the average proportion of men even in these frequently represented universities is about 5 per cent for each institution.

A rather large proportion of the space is devoted to a series of useful indexes. These are a periodical directory, a publishers' directory, an index of titles, and an index of names. Consequently the volume provides a handy reference book for the test-user.

It is not without significance that this work is published by a co-operative, nonprofit service for test-users. The editor is entitled to much commendation for his work in supervising the cataloguing of tests, selecting and counseling the reviewers, and planning the convenient and effective presentation of this valuable reference material.

NELSON B. HENRY

University of Chicago

ACCIDENTS INVOLVING SCHOOL CHILDREN.—The responsibility of the school in accidents involving public-school pupils has long been a matter of concern to school officials, and the increasing emphasis on extra-curriculum activities has raised new questions regarding both the legal and the equitable status of the school in relation to accidents occurring in connection with school activities. From time to time school people have sought clarification of the responsibility for school accidents of various types. The report of a recent study¹ of this problem reveals the causes of existing uncertainties and answers many of the questions which have been the basis of dispute.

Court cases and opinions of attorney-generals have been reviewed in this study in an attempt to define the liability of school officials for accidents more or less directly related to the functions of the school. The significance of questions of liability in relation to programs of safety education is stressed. The major divisions of the volume are designated as Parts I-IV with the following titles: "General Doctrines," "Principles of Liability," "Specific Problems of School Administration," and "Conclusions."

¹ Harry N. Rosenfield, *Liability for School Accidents: A Manual for Educational Administrators and Teachers*. Sponsored by the Center for Safety Education, New York University, in Co-operation with the New York University School of Law. New York: Harper & Bros., 1940. Pp. xviii+220. \$2.00.

The discussion of the first-named topic deals with the legal definition of negligence and the legal defenses that may be invoked when charges of negligence are preferred against school officials.

Part II is devoted to a consideration of the liability of a school district or school board and the personal liability of individual members of the board and the professional staff. In very few cases have these individuals been held personally liable for school accidents. In New York State, however, school boards are held liable in their corporate capacity for injuries resulting from their negligence with respect to such responsibilities as the maintenance of safe premises, the provision of competent personnel, and the provision of adequate supervision. Some states have enacted laws to enable school boards to carry accident insurance on pupils and to make compensation for costs incident to school accidents affecting pupils. Other states have laws specifically exempting school-board members from liability. Teachers, principals, and superintendents may generally be held liable for their own negligence.

The types and the frequency of school accidents are discussed in Part III. In this discussion the emphasis is placed on the causes of accidents and the precautions which should be exercised to prevent their occurrence, the question of liability being subordinated to this emphasis. It is noted that probably the greatest number of school accidents occur in the activities associated with athletics and the playgrounds. Examples are given also to emphasize the danger and the nature of accidents (1) in and about the school building, (2) in the classroom, (3) in transportation of pupils, (4) in the administration of health and medical services, (5) in cafeterias and school stores, (6) in off-school activities, and (7) in the school safety patrol.

Critical evaluations are made of some of the existing practices regarding common-law rule, statutory rules, and judicial decisions. Particularly attacked as a historical anachronism is the doctrine of state immunity in tort.

Recommendations for improving the status of school administration with respect to liability point to the increasing use of (1) accident reports for complete, accurate, and prompt information; (2) the use of releases and waivers; (3) the use of liability insurance for the protection of the school district or its employees; and (4) the use of insurance for athletic protection.

The Appendix of this volume contains a list of cases to support the general discussions. Cases pertaining to litigation in each of the states are recorded separately.

This volume will be serviceable to school authorities generally because of the uncertainty and the confusion which exist as a result of the variability in the statutes of different states and the conflicting opinions of different courts in cases of record. The treatment and the style are such that the book can be read by the layman, and the numerous citations will be useful to administrative officers and legal advisers of all public schools.

WALTER A. EGGERT

DePaul University

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GENERAL EDUCATIONAL METHOD, HISTORY, THEORY
AND PRACTICE

- ARMACOST, GEORGE H. *High School Principals' Annual Reports: A Study of Typewritten, Duplicated, and Printed Annual Reports of High School Principals to the Superintendent and Board of Education, and to the Public.* Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 807. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1940. Pp. x+180. \$2.00.
- CUNNINGHAM, HARRY ALLEN. *Material Facilities Needed in the Training of Intermediate Grade Teachers in Science.* Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 812. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1940. Pp. viii+162. \$2.00.
- Family Living and Our Schools: Suggestions for Instructional Programs.* The Joint Committee on Curriculum Aspects of Education for Home and Family Living of the Home Economics Department of the National Education Association and the Society for Curriculum Study, Bess Goodykoontz and Beulah I. Coon, co-chairmen. New York: D. Appleton-Century Co., Inc., 1941. Pp. xiv+468. \$2.50.
- HOLLINGSHEAD, ARTHUR D. *Guidance in Democratic Living.* New York: D. Appleton-Century Co., Inc., 1941. Pp. xiv+260. \$1.80.
- MAGILL, WALTER H. *Administering Vocational Education.* Guide to Action Series, No. 1. Minneapolis, Minnesota: Educational Publishers, Inc., 1941. Pp. xii+118. \$1.60.

BOOKS PRIMARILY FOR HIGH-SCHOOL TEACHERS AND PUPILS

- BAGLEY, CHARLES R. *Famous Women of France.* New York: Reynal & Hitchcock, 1941. Pp. x+180+lviii. \$1.35.
- BESSEY, MABEL A., and COFFIN, ISABELLE P. *Active Reading.* New York: D. Appleton-Century Co., Inc., 1941. Pp. xii+352. \$1.08.
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- BROOKE, ESTHER EBERSTADT. *The Right Job for You: And How To Get It.* New York: Noble & Noble, Publishers, Inc., 1940, 1941. Pp. xviii+304. \$1.90.
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- CLARK, JOHN A., FITZPATRICK, FREDERICK L., and SMITH, EDITH LILLIAN. *Science on the March.* Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1941. Pp. xiv+572+xii. \$1.72.
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- HART, WALTER W. *Essentials of Algebra*, First Course, pp. viii+440, \$1.28; *Essentials of High School Algebra*, pp. x+582, \$1.60. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1941.
- JOHNSON, IONE M. *School Productions: A Handbook for Preparing a Performance*. Minneapolis, Minnesota: Burgess Publishing Co., 1940. Pp. ii+58. \$1.50.
- Literature in the Senior High School: *New Frontiers*, edited by Thomas H. Briggs, Lucile Prim Jackson, Emma Miller Bolenius, and Max J. Herzberg, pp. xxviii+680+iv, \$1.92; *Romance*, edited by Thomas H. Briggs, Max J. Herzberg, Lucile Prim Jackson, and Emma Miller Bolenius, pp. xii+732+ii, \$2.00. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1940.
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- SILVER, FERN. *Foods and Nutrition*. New York: D. Appleton-Century Co., Inc., 1941. Pp. xii+522. \$1.72.
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- California's Natural Wealth: A Conservation Guide for Secondary Schools*. Prepared under the direction of the California Conservation Council. Bulletin of the California State Department of Education, Vol. IX, No. 4. Sacramento, California: State Department of Education, 1940. Pp. xii+124.

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